

The Nation.

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The Week.

If Aguinaldo needed a dictionary to spell out that manifesto now reported to have been signed by him, the newspaper reader should be supplied with a glossary with which to decipher the extraordinary dispatches about him that are now permitted to pass the Manila censor—for censorship there still is, despite the perennial announcement of its abolition. But however puzzling the dispatches may be, the public has received some interesting information from Major-General S. B. M. Young, who has just arrived from Northern Luzon, in regard to the outlook for permanent peace. Gen. Young is in line to succeed Gen. Miles as commander of the army in 1903, and his opinion is necessarily of great interest, if only for that reason. He does not hesitate to say that 60,000 men will be needed "for some time to come," and he by no means accepts the cheerful Imperialist view that Aguinaldo's capture and manifesto are to end the whole business. Gen. Young is particularly anxious about the powerful secret societies. It will take considerable time, he believes, to teach the ignorant natives that the doctrines of their "unscrupulous" leaders as to liberty and independence were quite misguided and misleading, and to convince them of the good intentions of the Americans. As these "good intentions" have hitherto too often taken the form of shot and shell and arson and destruction, the conclusion is hardly unnatural. Gen. Young, too, has had his experience as to the Filipinos who pretended friendliness and loyalty to the United States while really aiding the insurgents. In fact, his whole talk can affect Washington's cheerful optimism only as a cold douche.

We are surprised at the obstinacy with which the delegates to the Cuban Constitutional Convention adhere to their own opinions when their fallacies are exposed to them orally and in detail by "C. R. M." of the *New York Times*. This able logician went to Havana to see what was the matter with the Platt amendment, and why there was so much hesitation in gulping it down. In a long letter to his newspaper he tells us that the section which the majority of the delegates object to most passionately is the third, which is in these words:

"That the Government of Cuba consents that the United States may exercise the right to intervene for the preservation of Cuban independence, the maintenance of a

Government adequate for the protection of life, property, and individual liberty, and for discharging the obligations with respect to Cuba imposed by the Treaty of Paris on the United States, now to be assumed and undertaken by the Government of Cuba."

A benighted native named Portuondo, General Portuondo (Generals are evidently cheap in Cuba), asked the question: "How can one sovereign nation give to another the right to intervene in its affairs?" And then he added, "That concession destroys independence." Now observe the mental incapacity and deafness of this so-called General, as described by "C. R. M.":

"It was in vain that I pointed out that the express object of the intervention was to preserve their independence. Nor was I more successful with the argument that, with or without the Platt amendment, Cuban sovereignty could not be more complete than that of Spain, against which for our own protection and under the general sanction of international law we had intervened; and upon a future like occasion we should be compelled to take like action. 'Very well,' he said, 'do so, under your general sanction, but you ought not to ask us to give you in advance the general right to intervene at your discretion. It takes away from our sovereignty.'"

"Suppressed by Weyler" was the proud self-advertisement which the *Discusión* of Havana long printed at the top of its first page. Last week this Cuban newspaper's office was seized and sealed by order of Gen. Wood until such time as the editor would humbly sign a statement declaring that his Good Friday pictorial attacks on Wood and McKinley were purely political, not personal. The incident is highly suggestive. In such impulsive outbursts Imperialism reveals its real nature. Just as the true Imperialistic answer to an American editor in Manila who criticized the Government was swift deportation, so the proper Imperialistic plan to turn away the laughter aroused by a political caricature is to shut up the establishment and imprison the editor. There is in this, of course, a characteristically military intolerance of discussion and criticism—the same sort of thing that leads indignant young officers in Paris or Madrid to go out and smash a newspaper office. The truth conveyed by the caricature, however, was only what has been asserted by hundreds of newspapers in the United States—religious journals among them, like the *Independent*, the *Watchman*, the *Standard*—namely, that the terms now imposed upon the Cubans are in violation of our pledge, and equivalent to a destruction of Cuban independence. Why not begin the seizing and suppressing at home?

Gen. Wood appears quickly to have perceived his blunder in suppressing

the *Discusión*, and on second thoughts allowed it to go on publishing as usual. But the next issue of the newspaper triumphantly bore at its head: "Suppressed by Weyler; Suspended by Wood." Thus does the crafty editor convert the wrath of the Governor-General into an advertisement. As for suppressing newspapers and imprisoning editors, that is an old story with the Spanish and Spanish-American press; and Gen. Wood can devise no effective terrors in that line. Most Spanish-American editors of any age have become perfectly accustomed to doing their writing in jail, and don't mind it in the least. In fact, the "responsible editor" of the Mexican and South American press laws simply means the man who goes to jail. He gets extra pay for it. So that it is not a little funny to find Gen. Wood thinking that the newspaper men who despised the swords of Weyler will cower timidly before his own. Censorship and suppression of newspapers are familiar tricks of despotism. They are being played in Finland just at present with great success. But it takes a real autocrat to do it. An American made up to look like a fierce Russian, and essaying the rôle of a ferocious censor, will inspire, not alarm, but only a grin.

"The country is bleeding to death. Commerce is languishing. Agriculture is prostrate. Emigration of workmen is taking on alarming proportions, and distress prevails in all parts of the island." Is it of Ireland, does the reader think, that this is said? Or of Crete or Sicily? No, it is said of our own benevolently assimilated Porto Rico, and said by the leading financial and commercial organ of the island, the *Boletín Mercantil* of San Juan. In confirmation of the unhappy diagnosis might be cited the American newspaper of the same city, with the almost united testimony of business men in the island and of houses in this country engaged in the Porto Rican trade. In the face of all this, what are we to think of Gov. Allen's official optimism? Why, we are to think that it is official optimism. Its indomitable nature may be sampled in his cheerful explanation of the reasons why laborers are emigrating from Porto Rico by the thousand. They are simply energetic, adventurous fellows who want to better themselves! Would Gov. Allen say the same of Irish emigration? And how did it happen that it never occurred to the emigrants that they were in need of "bettering" until the Americans took over their island?

In the appointment of Philander C. Knox of Pittsburgh as Attorney-Gen-

eral, Mr. McKinley secures a lawyer of marked ability, according to the testimony of all who know him. It must always be accounted something of a drawback, however, when the President picks out as his law adviser a man who has no public reputation, in preference to one whom the people have come to know and respect. It seems also rather unfortunate that, when there are laws on the statute-books against Trusts, the Attorney-Generalship should be given to a lawyer who has been the adviser of great promoters of Trusts. This is not to say that Mr. Knox may not prove impartial as well as able; only that, human nature being what it is, he has to overcome a measure of distrust and suspicion. From this point of view his appointment does not maintain Mr. McKinley's well-earned reputation for political shrewdness.

Carter Harrison was elected Mayor of Chicago last week for the third time by a majority of nearly 30,000. This is a great tribute to the personality of the man, as were his father's five terms in the same office to the popularity of the elder Carter Harrison. But the result means much more than that the present Mayor is a man who is very well liked, and who has inherited and acquired rare skill as a politician. Mr. Harrison is given another term because he attracted the support of the independent element, which holds the balance of power in Chicago, and which could and would have turned him out if it had thought the best interests of the city would be served by the election of his opponent. The Republicans had an excellent opportunity offered them. They needed only to nominate a man of high character and proved independence, who could be trusted to resist the unjust demands of the corporations as stoutly as Harrison has done for the past four years, and who could also be depended upon to end the present leniency towards the gamblers and disreputable classes of all sorts. But the Republican party in Chicago is controlled by a machine which forced upon the convention, as the nominee for Mayor, Judge Hanecy, who should have been debarred from candidacy by reason of being on the bench, and whose most undignified canvass confirmed all the suspicions that he represented the Republican ring and "the traction interests," while he held out little hope of improvement in regard to the "wide-open" conditions. The result was that even so strongly Republican a newspaper as the *Tribune* could not say a word in his favor on the morning of election day.

The Legislature of 1900 authorized the appointment by the Governor of a Commission to revise the charter of Greater New York, and an admirable body of men for this task was named

by Mr. Roosevelt last April. The Commission made an elaborate report on the 1st of December last, which was submitted to the Legislature on its meeting in January. Gov. Odell in his message called attention to the report of this Commission for New York city, as well as to the promised report from the Tenement-House Commission for the greater cities of the State, and added: "Matters of such grave importance affecting the great municipalities should be carefully considered, and such recommendations as may appear feasible in the direction of better city administration should receive favorable action." Instead of such "careful consideration," the charter question was neglected even by the Committees on Cities for many weeks. When it was finally brought before the Legislature, the fourth month of the session had begun, and the leaders of the dominant party were planning adjournment by the 20th of April. The Constitution allows the Mayor of a city fifteen days in which to consider any measure affecting his municipality, so that, if Mr. Van Wyck were to take all the time allowed him before returning the bill to Albany with his veto, it would have to be passed the first time by the 5th of April in order that it might be passed the second time on the 20th. So on the 3d instant Gov. Odell sent to the Senate a so-called "emergency message," under the provision of the Constitution which authorizes the Executive to "certify to the necessity of the immediate passage" of a bill, in which case the requirement is waived that "no bill shall be passed or become a law unless it shall have been printed and upon the desk of the members, in its final form, at least three calendar legislative days prior to its final passage." This was an abuse of the "emergency" power on the Governor's part, for there was no necessity whatever for the immediate passage of the bill, and no bill could come before the Legislature more imperatively demanding careful consideration as printed in its final form. Having been thus dumped upon the upper branch on Wednesday, it was passed by that body within an hour; it was then sent to the Assembly, amended in scores of particulars by that body, and rushed to a final vote there within four hours on Thursday; it was got into shape for the Governor to sign on Friday, and was put into the Mayor's hands during the evening of that day.

There was every reason to expect that all sorts of jobs would be found in an act of 1,165 pages which had been passed with such scandalous haste. For one thing, Deputy Comptroller Levey points out that section 1526 was amended so that \$20,000 apiece must be paid annually for corporation advertising to each of eight daily newspapers in the boroughs of the Bronx, Queens, and Richmond—or

the great sum of \$160,000 a year—although there is now no daily newspaper in two of these boroughs, and in no year since consolidation has it been necessary to spend over \$2,000 for advertising in Queens or half that sum in Richmond. Mr. Levey points out that "it is not unlikely that newspapers will be established at once in the outlying boroughs for the special purpose of obtaining this patronage, just as was done in the days of Tweed, and the possible outcome of this attempted debauchery of the press in the outlying districts threatens even worse evils than the mere waste of public funds." Another "little joker," which got in at the last moment, nobody knows how, is a clause which apparently allows the Board of Education to give money to private schools. A third outrage is a provision that, while City Magistrates shall continue to be appointed in Manhattan, they shall be elected in Brooklyn, which borough the Republicans hope that they may carry; that the number of such magistrates in Brooklyn shall be increased to ten, as against only twelve for both Manhattan and the Bronx—a barefaced attempt to grab patronage; and that the old requirement, still continued for Manhattan, that a magistrate shall be a lawyer of five years' practice, may be waived for Brooklyn.

A committee of the City Club has made a report on the subject of the improper use of money by corporations holding special franchises, for the purpose of controlling legislation or of securing the favor of politicians. A bill has been prepared on very conservative lines to repress this evil. It is, perhaps, open to still further amendment. It does not propose to deal with past offences of this kind, but merely to put a curb on future ones. It does not apply to corporations in general, but only to those holding special franchises, such as the right to use public streets, and also to a certain class of moneyed corporations. The theory of the bill is that, if these corporations are required to publish certain details of their annual expenditures, they will be very careful not to make payments for political purposes. Accordingly, the bill requires certain items of expense to be made and filed once each year (earnings are not required to be filed). It provides further that any of the corporations named shall furnish on demand itemized accounts of their expenditures to the Attorney-General of the State, or to any stock or bondholder of the corporation in question, or to any taxpayer in any county where the corporation transacts any part of its business.

The Priestman case is exciting a good deal of comment in the press and in private circles, as it ought to, and is

associated in the minds of some people with the recent wholesale removal of Custom-house officials and the renewed activity of baggage inspectors on the docks. The outrage put upon Mr. Priestman was of quite a different character. He was taken to be obnoxious to the Pauper Immigration Law, because the person charged with the execution of it was not sure that Mr. Priestman would not become a charge upon the poor rates. If, after examination and cross-examination, this official should be satisfied that the passenger was likely to become a public charge, it would be his duty to deport him at the expense of the steamer that brought him to our shores, in the steerage probably, although he came first class—a dodge, perhaps, to evade the vigilance of those who guard our ports and our almshouses. The case is a fresh and glaring illustration of our civil-service system. It needs a thorough overhauling. If it does not receive one at the hands of the Treasury Department, it ought to be brought before the courts by Mr. Priestman, in an action for false imprisonment. There is no apparent reason why any arriving passenger, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, for example, should not be arrested on suspicion of not being able to earn a living, if the inspector does not happen to know him and is a fool to boot.

The terms offered to the United States by the Colombian Government in respect of the Panama Canal, if correctly reported, embrace everything that it is desirable or proper for us to receive. They include a lease for ninety-nine years of the strip of land through which the canal passes. The sovereignty is reserved to Colombia, and the neutrality of the canal is to be guaranteed by both Governments. A rental of the ground, based upon the gross receipts of the canal, is to be paid, the minimum sum of \$250,000 being guaranteed. The existing Panama Canal Company is to be permitted to negotiate for the sale of its concession to the United States, but not to any other Government. These terms remove the only weighty objection which the present Canal Commission advanced against the Panama route. The offer made by the Colombian Minister proves that the French company realizes at last the necessity of decisive action. It cannot be doubted that the action of the Colombian Government is inspired by the canal company, and that it intends to employ the intervening time before our Congress assembles in bringing before the people of the United States the advantages of distance, time, and cost which their route possesses over that of Nicaragua. It is a fact of importance, too, that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty does not oppose our construction of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, provided its neutrality is guaranteed and the sovereignty of the country through which it passes is not

encroached upon. The terms of that treaty, except in these two particulars, apply only to a canal via the San Juan River and Lake Nicaragua.

The Delpit case has just brought before the Canadian public the relations of Church and State in the province of Quebec. Students of marriage laws generally will welcome the decision of the Superior Court of Quebec that no ecclesiastical requirement may impair the validity of marriage as a civil contract. Aside from its legal bearings, the case was one of peculiar personal hardship. When Mr. Delpit sought the annulment of his marriage on the ground that he and his wife, being both Catholics, had never been legally united by the Unitarian clergyman who performed the ceremony, he used a discreditable subterfuge to rid himself of the mother of his three children. It was most unfortunate that the ecclesiastical tribunal to which he applied chose to regard the marriage decree of the Council of Trent rather than the clear equities of the case, and decided that, by the strict rule of the Church, the marriage, not having been solemnized by the parish priest of one of the contracting parties, was in the eyes of the Church null and invalid. The decision of the Quebec Curia was sustained by the Vatican.

So far, in deciding whether a marriage contracted in good faith had or had not sacramental character, the Church was clearly within its rights. The clash with the State came only when the ecclesiastical tribunal asked the civil court to confirm its judgment and declare Mr. Delpit free to marry again. The request was the more plausible that the Roman Catholic Church of Quebec, in the control of education and the right to collect tithes, retains certain functions of a State church, and the specious plea was made that the Church thereby only claimed jurisdiction over its own members. What confusion might have arisen if the courts had admitted the principle that each church in the province had coercive jurisdiction in the marriage of its own members, it is easy to imagine, and it was gratifying when the Superior Court denied Mr. Delpit's motion, and affirmed the validity of every marriage contracted in good faith and properly recorded. It was decided that all clergymen in the province were equally competent to solemnize marriages; that the Church's jurisdiction must be enforced by the powers, chiefly moral, at the Church's command, and without the aid of the State; finally, that no ecclesiastical court exists by royal authority in the province, nor, if existing, has any jurisdiction in the purely civil case of the annulment of a marriage. The decision will be generally welcome in Canada,

among the more enlightened Catholics as well as among the Protestants. There is little doubt that the two courts to which an appeal might still lie will sustain the decision of Judge Archibald.

When the man in the street imagines conspiracies against himself on every hand and sees in every passer-by an enemy, his friends usually call in an alienist to pass on his sanity. If the German Emperor's latest utterances are correctly reported, his mental condition calls for a like solicitude. This seeing in an epileptic workman "a hand from out of the people," these repeated allusions to the fidelity of the army "during revolutionary times at home," this warning the soldiers against the "voice of the tempter," these extraordinary precautions for his personal safety—all, saving the divine right of kings to act foolishly, bespeak a disordered mind. How serious this morbid condition of the Kaiser is or is likely to be, it would be folly to assert or to predict; that it is such as to cause grave anxiety is shown in the suppression of his recent speeches, and in charges made openly in the Reichstag that the Emperor is in the hands of a military clique who poison his mind against the people. Certain nations have got along very well under mad kings; Bavaria even gained a certain glory from the extravagances of Ludwig, the poet madman. But a monomaniac swayed by the desire of military glory and the fear of personal danger could bring only disaster to his country.

The naming of a reform Minister of Education in Russia shows that the student riots were no ephemeral demonstration, but a movement of protest too strong and too general to be disregarded. The admission of defects in the present scholastic system was not lightly to be obtained from an absolute monarch, and the terms of the new Minister's appointment make it clear that he is to exercise genuine Ministerial powers. It is a welcome concession to liberal opinion, for the recent assassination of Minister Bogolépoff might well have confirmed the Czar in his reactionary attitude. In a Cabinet which has already compelled the Czar to rescind his illegal decrees for the punishment of students and to dismiss the brutal St. Petersburg Chief of Police, the new Minister of Instruction will find sincere support for his programme of reform. It is, says Prince Kropotkin, in the current *Outlook*, the first time in Russian history that a Russian Cabinet has assumed the powers of a responsible Ministry. And it may be that the future historian will date the beginning of constitutional government in Russia from the student demonstration of 1901.

PEACE PROBLEMS IN THE PHILIPPINES.

If the Philippine insurrection, as an organized and formidable movement, is ended, as it appears to be, the verdict of mankind will be that the Filipinos have fought a good fight for liberty. If there is anything in the boasted chivalry of fighting men, even our own soldiers must have gained respect for their opponents—the little brown Malays who shrank not from pitting their puny strength against a giant's, and who have with such constancy and devotion maintained a dauntless front for more than two years. For our part, we should tremble for our own love of liberty did we not see other men willing to strive and die for theirs. We could not condemn in others what we should applaud in ourselves. But we have not cried shame on all the needless bloodshed to have any other feeling now than thankfulness that the long misery of it is seemingly over.

But peace hath her problems not less but more arduous than those of war; and it is to the great and pressing problems of peace in the Philippines that we must now address ourselves in earnest. Difficult as the military task has been of breaking down Filipino resistance, a severer labor is before us. Brute force can do the work of brute force; but government, far-sighted statesmanship, the ability to build up where we have destroyed, require instruments and skill far harder to come by than guns and strategy. It was easy for Austria to garrison Bosnia and Herzegovina with 165,000 men; but to introduce settled government into those provinces snatched from Turkish misrule—that was not easy. Cromwell could leave Ireland a smoking heap, and English soldiers can keep her in subjection to-day; but to govern her in peace and content has been a problem too hard for English wit to compass. Germany could hold Alsace and Lorraine in a grip of steel, but to convert their inhabitants into loyal subjects of the Empire has been the toil of thirty years, and the end is not yet. Light-heartedly as a nation may go to war, it cannot face such sequels of war as confront us in the Philippines without a deep sense of having a mighty work in hand.

We note at the very start, however, one happy circumstance. It is that the Filipino cause is now in a fair way to get a more impartial hearing in the United States than has thus far been possible. The reason is plain. Human nature being what it is, people will not parley with men in arms against them. It ought not to be so. Right and justice and humanity, it should always be in order to discuss, even *inter arma*. But to such a creature as man, living in such a world as this, as Bishop Butler used to say, we know that it is not possible.

"Let them quit fighting, then we will talk with them. If they have a case to present, let them first lay down their arms." That is what has been said all over the country these two years past, and it has had the practical effect of putting the Filipinos out of court. But now that the era of discussion as a purely civic question has apparently come—now that the shouting and the tumult must give way to calmer methods—there is hope, we say, that the whole Philippine question will be looked at in a larger and more rational way.

Any ruler can carry on a war. McKinley could do it; Aguinaldo could do it. But to decide what to do after the war is over will require all our wisdom. Thus far the President has not gone beyond the military stage of the problem—that is, the easiest. All that he has asked or promised, beyond military measures, has amounted to little more than "the polysyllabic art of saying nothing." But now he must translate his vague generalities into clear-cut particulars. "The best and most extensive system of self-government which the Filipinos are capable of," is one of his phrases. Well, how are we going to find out what that is? The American way has been to try and see. Cast the bantling on the rock. The way to self-government lies through self-government. To cure excesses of liberty, grant more liberty. Probably we are not up to that yet in the Philippines, but we must make a beginning, and obviously the only way to begin is to consult the Filipinos themselves. We are not speaking now in any abstract way about the consent of the governed. Call that an exploded doctrine, if you please; the practical fact remains that as a pure matter of business, as a way of taking the first step out of the bog, we cannot set up a government for the Filipinos without ascertaining their wishes in the premises.

Nobody really disputes this, yet how much it implies! It implies that the expression of Filipino public opinion must be as unfettered as the air. Restraints and censorship must be stricken off. It implies that, as speedily as possible, a body representative of the Filipino people shall be constituted, to become what Burke called the "vehicle and organ of public opinion." If Bismarck insisted upon having Deputies from Alsace and Lorraine given a free voice in the Reichstag, so as to let the Empire know what the majority of the people in the Reichsland thought and wanted, we cannot deny open and unchecked expression to the wishes of the Filipinos. Their national spirit must be cherished as the most precious thing in human government, according to Professor James. As Judge Taft is now promising the slaveholding and polygamous Mohammedans in the Sulu archipelago not to interfere in any way with

their customs or religion, so we are bound, in the end, to assure the Filipinos that we mean to leave them to work out their own salvation. Who is there in this country to say them nay? Not President McKinley. He has been astute enough not to shut the door on that possibility. Not, we believe, the voice of the American people, when the mists of war are off their soul. The fact is, that the sound and convincing arguments for Philippine independence never had so good a chance of being listened to as precisely at this juncture; and those who have the Filipino cause at heart should press them, in season and out of season, with more energy and more hope than ever before.

THE CIVIL SERVICE IN THE PHILIPPINES.

"Four recent appointees to judicial positions in the Philippines sailed for Manila to-day on the transport *Buford*." So ran a San Francisco dispatch of last week, apparently unimportant, yet not without very considerable significance. By whom were these men chosen? Under what power? Who judged of the necessity for their appointment, and who fixed their respective salaries? Was the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States asked, as is required by the Constitution when members of the Federal judiciary are selected? These are some of the questions which naturally suggest themselves to any one of an inquiring turn of mind on reading such a dispatch. The judges in question were, we believe, chosen by virtue of the general war power of the President; but the power lodged in his hands by the Spooner amendment to the Army Bill is a momentous one, as will steadily appear in the process of organizing a civil government.

We have already pointed out the danger to the Philippines from the fact that our civil service is not sufficiently well protected at home, or adequately organized, to administer government in distant countries under wholly altered conditions. But there are plainly still greater dangers to both the colonies and the home Government if the power of creating an unlimited number of places and of selecting their incumbents is to rest in the hands of any one man or set of men. We therefore welcome the first annual report of the Philippine Civil-Service Commission, just published, which shows that a beginning has been made in the direction of establishing a classified merit service, and we most emphatically urge its extension to include teachers and other important officials without delay. Wholly aside from the character of the men thus far selected, and with full recognition of the high standing and aims of Judge Taft and his associates,

the power of appointment of the civil Governor should be limited to the utmost. If experience has taught the necessity of restricting the appointing power of the President, the case cannot be different with a civil Governor 7,000 miles away from home, and practically out of reach of criticism.

We have already had not a few illustrations of the abuse of the appointing power in connection with our island holdings, which demonstrate, beyond dispute, the necessity for defining and safeguarding the service at the earliest possible moment. In Cuba, for instance, we have had Neely, Rathbone, Thompson, and some minor defaulters to bring discredit upon the country. Moreover, with the Cuban Treasury to fall back upon, not a few sinecures have been created, and not a few indefensible allowances have been granted. As examples we may cite the appointment of an elderly native of New Hampshire to the unnecessary office of superintendent of public buildings in Havana, the subvention of certain Cubans in the interest of the military government, and the giving of apartments in public buildings to army officers free of cost while they were drawing their usual allowances for quarters from the United States Treasury. The danger to the home civil service from unfit colonial appointments has already been significantly demonstrated by the ease with which Senator Beveridge's father-in-law was transferred to the classified service in the United States from Porto Rico, where he was appointed without examination at an advanced age.

The guiding principle of the Philippine civil service should be that as few Americans as possible shall be appointed to office. If this fails to commend itself to the spoilsmen, it is dictated by sound policy and prescribed by the experience of other nations. Subject races, the world over, have wanted their own offices and officers, however contentedly they have regarded the protectorate over them. The German official in French-speaking Alsace-Lorraine was no more beloved after the province's annexation in 1871 than was the English born and bred governmental officer in the American colonies in 1776. The English were quick to recognize the soundness of this principle in Egypt. As Sir Alfred Milner has pointed out, Lord Cromer's great reforms were carried out by a mere handful of English officials, who trained to their needs their native subordinates, at first often hostile, as they carried on their work. In the army the reorganized Egyptian battalions, originally composed of the jetsam of two disorganized services, had but three or four English officers and sergeants to drill them and lead them into battle. The English battalion commander could tell very little about the reliability

of his native officers and men, but he made them trustworthy by trusting them, and, with insignificant lapses, the principle has long demonstrated its correctness in practice, both in tedious garrisons and in hand-to-hand conflicts with dervishes along the Nile.

The policy of trusting the Filipinos and of inviting their cooperation by giving them responsibility cannot be initiated too soon. In the town and provincial governments thus far created by the Philippine Commission, American officers have apparently formed a majority of the officials selected. Under the Army Law recently enacted, Filipinos are restricted to first and second lieutenantcies in the Philippine regiments that were authorized. The restoration of peace gives the opportunity of following the wiser English example, both in the army and in civil life. That the advisability of this is beginning to be recognized in the Philippines appears from the recommendation of the Civil-Service Board that natives should be advanced to posts held by Americans as fast as possible. The Philippine Commission, too, has wisely provided that soldiers in active service shall not become municipal officers, and has decreed that after March 1, 1902, provincial officers shall be selected under the provisions of the Civil-Service Act. It should have the hearty support of the Administration in these forward steps.

THE MONEY MARKET AND THE TREASURY.

The *Financial Chronicle* has some appropriate remarks on the present condition of the money market and the operations of the Treasury. It points out the fact that while money is growing scarcer, and some small shipments of gold to Europe have recently been made, the Treasury has abstracted upwards of \$9,000,000 during the month of March, i. e., \$9,000,000 more than its monthly expenses.

The Secretary has been compelled to go into the market as a buyer of bonds to prevent an artificial stringency, although he had previously declared that he would not buy at present prices. There have been rumors in the Street that the fear of an artificial stringency here, arising from the Treasury drain, has produced actual stringency abroad, and interfered with some international negotiations of importance. Very likely the knowledge of this reflex action led Secretary Gage to change his mind and to buy \$4,672,000 of the 4 per cents of 1907, in order to relieve the situation and reduce his surplus. To avoid these ever-recurring disturbances of the market, the *Chronicle* suggests an amendment of the Sub-Treasury Law in this wise:

"Let the amount of balance to be held in the Sub-Treasury be fixed by law, and all over that be daily or weekly put into depository banks to be checked out for the

interest payments; or if those payments do not absorb it, to be paid out on bond purchases. An amendment to the law making all this obligatory on the Treasury Department would remove Sub-Treasury action ever after from disturbing our money markets."

That the United States Treasury ought not to disturb the natural course of trade by withdrawing from business channels money which it does not need, is an accepted axiom in finance. No other national Government does so, nor do our own city and State governments. The ideal condition is that which obtains in England, France, Germany, Austria, Russia, and all the lesser Governments of Europe. Their collections of taxes are deposited in banks which do a commercial business. The Government's deposits are treated like any other part of the daily intake. The bank keeps a reserve against all its liabilities, and uses the remainder of its cash for loans and discounts. In a country where this system obtains, the Government can never disturb the money market by its collections, since the public balances are just as much at the service of the community as those of private depositors. Such was our own system also from the beginning of the Government until 1840, when the Sub-Treasury Act was passed. This act was one of the consequences of the political quarrel between President Jackson and the Bank of the United States, which culminated in the removal of the Government's deposits from that institution in 1834.

Whatever may be thought of the merits of that controversy, we can hardly expect that the discarded system, although the best one imaginable, can now be revived. Ideas have changed, old prejudices have become petrified, new conditions have arisen, to which we must conform in any attempt to cure the evil under consideration. The existing methods of getting rid of a Treasury surplus are: (1) by depositing it in national banks and requiring security from them in the shape of United States bonds; (2) by purchasing such bonds with the surplus money of the Treasury; (3) by anticipating payments of interest on the public debt. The first of these methods is the one oftenest resorted to. The Government's deposits in national banks are now increasing, and must continue to increase unless bond purchases are resumed. The latter remedy is open to the objection that speculators may corner the bond market and compel the Government to pay extortionate prices. Such practices have been witnessed in the past, and will certainly occur again if like conditions prevail. The third remedy is so limited in scope that it may be left out of the reckoning. Paying interest a month in advance only adjourns the crisis thirty days. It is not a remedy, but a postponement.

Another remedy consists in such an

adjustment of revenue to expenses that the one shall be no greater than the other. That would be an ideal condition if it could be attained, but our Government has never been able to reach it. It was, in fact, the intention of Congress to realize it when that body passed the Tax-Reduction Bill, but at the last moment the River and Harbor Bill failed to become a law, and thus a large field of disbursement, for which estimates had been made, was removed, and the expected balance was lost. And now there is every prospect that the war expenditures in the Philippines will be greatly reduced; than which nothing can be more desirable. Human wisdom is not equal to the task of balancing the future income and expenditure of a government as large as ours and subject to so many vicissitudes. All that we can expect is an approximation. For this we must depend upon estimates of the Treasury, and every Secretary will be under some mental bias. He will always estimate for a surplus rather than a deficit.

The change of law which the *Chronicle* proposes does not seem to us adequate, although perhaps public opinion would not sanction a more radical one. It depends for its efficacy on the bond market exclusively. Whether the Treasury itself buys bonds to reduce its surplus, or whether the banks buy them and turn them over to the Treasury as security for money deposited with them, the remedy has its limits in the price of the bonds, and every million taken out of the market raises the price of the remainder by some small fraction. What is to be done when the last bond shall have been redeemed?

Some people say that the clearing-houses ought to take the Treasury surplus and pay interest for the deposits, and divide the money among their members ratably, because the security of a clearing-house in any large city would be good without a deposit of bonds. If the banks were not obliged to buy and pledge low-interest bonds as security, they could afford to pay interest on the money deposited with them. This plan seems to be impracticable, since the clearing-house is not an incorporated company, but merely a voluntary association or committee, and hence could not be made responsible for deposits. Moreover, it would not be willing to assume such responsibility if it could, since the apportionment of deposits would lead to bickering and jealousy among the different members, which might disrupt the clearing-house itself. It might be possible, however, for a few large banks in each of the large cities of the Union to form an association among themselves of sufficient magnitude to furnish adequate security without bond deposits, so that the Government could put its surplus money in

their hands and receive the same rate of interest on its balances as is paid by city banks to country banks for their balances. This would be an approach to the system that prevails in the countries of the Old World; and the nearest one, perhaps, that public opinion would sanction.

ITALY AND THE ALLIANCES.

If the rejoicings of the belligerent French press over the detachment of Italy from the Triple Alliance were not premature, we might begin to think of a curious swing backwards of the pendulum of history. A Franco-Italian alliance now, or even the accession of Italy to the alliance between France and Russia, would carry us back to the time, fifty years ago, when the relations between the French and Italians were those of almost rapturous friendship. Mrs. Browning has embalmed in her poetry that "ecstasy of a newly delivered impassioned land" with which Napoleon III., who "came to deliver Italy," was greeted by her sons. It was not long, however, before the charlatan "liberator" threw off his mask of unselfishness, and took Nice as the price of his humane interference. From the peace of Villafranca and the treaty of Zurich there dated a decided chilling of the Italian enthusiasm for France.

But it was Bismarck, with his long-headed, cold-hearted diplomacy, who really determined the modern international relations of Italy. Before the war with Austria, he had ostentatiously cultivated Italian friendship, and this he cemented after Sadowa by bringing about the Austrian cession of Venetia to Italy. That done, he instantly began to bend all his diplomacy to preparation for the war with France, which to his marvellous eye was clearly inevitable. While Von Roon was whetting the Prussian sword and Moltke making ready to wield it, Bismarck was plotting, with infinite craft and skill, the diplomatic isolation of France. He went all lengths to ingratiate himself at Vienna, and in Austrian neutrality reaped the fruits of the astonishing and far-sighted moderation with which he had insisted, in the teeth of the Prussian Generals and the King himself, upon dealing with the enemy left prostrate at Königgrätz. He was after bigger game. He won over the Czar. He courted Spain. He maintained his good understanding with Italy. When all was ready, he pointed out their quarry to the Prussian eagles, and France had to submit to their terrible swoop, friendless and alone.

It was not only, however, to break down France's power of resistance that Bismarck pulled every diplomatic string; he must also draw her fangs for the future, must make her announced policy of *revanche* impossible. To this

task he addressed his great powers immediately after the war with France, and Italy became steadily a more and more strategic piece in his game. In case of another war with France, Italian friendship would mean for Germany 100,000 French troops immobile on the southern frontier. So the Chancellor proceeded to bind Rome to Berlin. He gave a Government subsidy to the St. Gothard tunnel, as if to emphasize the desire of the two nations to come into the closest touch. When the Three Emperors' League was formed, Italy was invited to revolve about it as an important satellite. Later on, when the Czar, in indignation at the way in which Bismarck, as "honest broker" at the Congress of Berlin, had allowed Russia to be robbed of the spoils of her war with Turkey, threw himself into the arms of France, the Triple Alliance was the fertile Chancellor's invention to meet the situation, and Italy proudly took her place alongside Austria and Germany as equal member of the Dreibund. It is needless to detail the later occurrences which deepened the hostility between France and Italy. Tariff wars and the French aggression in North Africa turned the old Italian love for France into something like hate; and though there have been improved commercial relations of late, nothing has happened to make a Franco-Italian alliance seem either natural or likely.

Why, then, has the French press, and a part of the Austrian, spoken of it as if it were already an accomplished fact? Why have the Chauvinists at Paris declared that the rendezvous of the Italian and Russian fleets at Toulon would be another Kronstadt, only more significant? The sole known reason is that Italy has felt herself unjustly treated by the other members of the Triple Alliance in the matter of commerce. Austria has been legislating against Italian products. If the Agrarians have their way in Germany, Italian trade will be injured in that country, too. Call you this an alliance? Italy has angrily asked this question, and has been ostentatiously coquetting with France, with whom she already has a reciprocity treaty, and might easily get something better yet. But it seems clear from the latest dispatches that Chancellor von Bülow has seen the point, and given the Italian Ministry such assurances that the little flurry will soon be over.

Italy is certainly still in the Triple Alliance. It does not expire till 1903, and she has no real motive, unless it be trade arrangements, to withdraw. We often hear it said, it is true, that she finds the military burdens consequent upon the Dreibund too grievous to be borne. But there are two sides to this question. Italian expenditures on fleet and army have undoubtedly been heavy; but it may be questioned if the country was not in for them, al-

liance or no alliance. It was a flush and foolish time, when colonies were all the rage, and Italy would have had to be wiser than other nations if she had refrained from going in for those costly toys. As it stands, the military burden of Italy foots up about \$65,000,000 a year, while the interest on her public debt, which is really the crushing item, amounts to \$130,000,000. But this debt was contracted irrespective of the Dreibund. Moreover, the existing Italian Government is such a compound of heterogeneous materials, and promises so little to be stable, that it would hardly seem possible for it seriously to attempt any change in Italy's international status, or, indeed, for any foreign Power to think it worth while to negotiate with it to that end.

LOST AIDS TO CONDUCT.

In July, 1853, I steamed into the harbor of Smyrna upon one of the French Messageries. The place was in a state of great excitement, for it was reported that an American frigate which was lying there had just given an Austrian frigate, which was also in the harbor, exactly ten minutes in which to decide whether the captain would yield up a Hungarian who had claimed American nationality, and who had served in the war of '48 and '49. The Austrian Consul-General had seized him on shore. An American captain in those days had no occasion to seek instructions from the State Department; he knew on which side his country stood in a dispute about human freedom or human rights. This captain's course was clear: he shot his guns and called his crew to quarters. The following day we learned that the case had been settled by the surrender of the fugitive. The Austrian captain knew that the American would not "reason why"; that his business was "to do or die."

There was then nobody in America finding excuses for tyranny or outrage in any quarter of the world, or sniffing round to see on which side there was money to be made in any question of humanity or justice. We sought out fugitives then, not for the purpose of surrendering them to their pursuers, but for the purpose of helping them. We stand to-day in the position in which King Bomba of Naples stood then, and we are as shy about aiding fugitives as the Austrians would then have been.

I have just been reading the Countess Martiengo-Cesaresco's book on Italian character, consisting of a series of biographical sketches of the leading Italians of those days. There is no decent man but must acknowledge the enormous moral elevation which a people derives from the contemplation of great examples of courage, patriotism, and persistence. Ricasoli, Ugo Bassi, and Nino Bixio could no longer be heroes of ours, however. We prefer Stephen B. Elkins or Gov. Tanner. Our hearts warm to a trickster like Funston, who betrays a fugitive in disguise. I call this a great moral descent, and I want to know who would call it anything else.

I do not know where to find any nobler examples of civic virtue than the men whose biographies this book furnishes, but it must not be supposed that the authoress confines herself to distinguished instances of this

virtue. She has a thousand illustrations of the extent to which a people, even in the lowest grades, is elevated by a great cause. There is no depth in Italian society so low that it was not reached by the hopes and fears and ambitions of the Risorgimento of 1849. The charcoal-burner's pulse throbbed with the same emotion as that of Nino Bixio, who led Garibaldi's "Thousand" in Sicily, and finally laid down his life that Italy might be great and free.

We must not be supercilious about these things because we are a bigger nation. Mr. William Travers may have been right in saying that "he stuttered more in New York than he did in Baltimore, because it was a bigger city," but this hardly applies to national greatness. There are certain peoples whose fall we measure by the height from which they have descended, no matter how full their dinner-pail may be. One of the new things that have come into the world of late years, along with Expansion, is absorption in dinner-pails and insensibility to moral shame. The loss of shame among our public men is one of the saddest features of the time. Hitherto the sense of shame has happily stepped in to restrain ambition. It has scared men from doing things to which ambition would have prompted them. But we have lost even that. As long as we have a full dinner-pail, we care not what happens.

King Bomba of Naples was very like "the revered McKinley." Both were pious in their way; both claimed the right divine, as Palmerston said, "to govern wrong"; neither cared anything about the look of things, as long as the dinner-pail remained undisturbed; and neither was able to see any value in anything but the dinner-pail.

The most remarkable thing in the Countess Cesaresco's book is the prominence assigned to the promptings of the women, the mothers or daughters of the patriots. Nearly every one of those she mentions had a wife or a mother behind him who urged him "in Rome's quarrel to spare neither limb nor life, nor son nor wife," in the glorious struggle in which he was engaged. It is horrible to turn, as I have done, from the book which recalls such splendid self-sacrifice, to our newspaper accounts of the admiration of Funston's aged mother for her son's falsehood and treachery, and of the way in which he won his promotion. Funston is another illustration of the absence of what is called honor from the aids enjoyed by the American soldier. His great object seems to be, in the accounts we have of his career, "to get there," no matter how.

Among the warmest supporters of the Administration in its game of grab and greed are found women whose backing seems to have been given to the mere love of fight and of winning—the honor of the cause being as little apparent to them as to the men. To some of the most thoughtful of them, war, as an antidote to Wall Street or to commercialism, seems a complete and high justification of the slaughter of a brave people, fighting for self-government, as we once fought ourselves. Supposing the soldier's career to be superior to the clubman's or to the capitalist's, is not the school we have set up for their improvement too expensive—in human life, in moral standards—for women, at least, to advocate? When the standards of wives and mothers are thus lowered, then the race is indeed in danger.

E. L. G.

UNPUBLISHED LETTERS OF MAZZINI AND KOSSUTH.

FLORENCE, March, 1901.

Just as the volume of 'Selected Writings of Joseph Mazzini,' chosen by Carducci to form part of his "Scholastic Library of Classical Authors," was ready for the press, we received from various friends whole series of letters from Mazzini, addressed to friends and fellow-workers after the failure of the Savoy expedition up to 1848, and others written after 1849 to fresh colleagues and new disciples who rallied to the republican flag during the defence of Venice and of Rome. Many of these last remained faithful after the failure of the Milanese insurrection (February 6, 1853), nor gave in their adhesion to monarchy until after the peace of Villafranca, when Victor Emanuel, signing the treaty "for what concerns me," openly encouraged Garibaldi and the armies of Tuscany and the central provinces to fight the good fight and to keep the faith till unity should become an accomplished fact. Despite their monotonous reiteration of "the duty of action, the necessity of a war fund, the formation of plans destined to certain success" which was never attained, all these letters (and there are hundreds) are interesting as they elucidate the various stages of Italian revolutionary history. We select from those written between 1853-7 a few that shed new light on "the parting of the ways."

The Italians—suffering more cruelly than ever before 1848 from Austrian vengeance in Venetian Lombardy, from the atrocities which she compelled her subordinates to perpetrate in the duchies and in the Papal States, only equalled by the infamies of King Bomba and by the French-protected Pope—though united in their resolve to throw off the yoke of their oppressors, were divided as to the methods best adapted to insure success. The Moderates pointed to Piedmont, where the tricolor still floated and the Constitution was maintained, where the press was comparatively free, and electoral suffrage, if restricted, respected; where exiles from every enslaved province found an asylum, and where a policy of civil versus ecclesiastical rule was frankly initiated. The Liberals, never insisting on the republican form of government, but solely on independence and unity, maintained that Piedmont could not initiate a war against Austria without bringing all the Powers of Europe to the rescue of that mainstay of despotism; that only insurrection of all the oppressed nationalities could dissolve her heterogeneous empire; that, once Lombardy in arms, Piedmont must take up the gauntlet or perish. They freely admitted that the young King had not allowed the sword ungirt by Charles Albert on the battlefield of Novara to rust there; that the care bestowed on his small but thoroughly organized and well-disciplined army betokened his intention to unsheathe it at the first propitious moment. "Hasten that moment, prepare the opportunity," was the burden of Mazzini's song from the hour when the crime of the 2d of December had at last destroyed the illusion that the initiative of republican France would relight the revolutionary fire in Europe.

Unfortunately, the discovery of the conspiracy which embraced the entire Mantuan province, resulting in the execution of the flower of the conspirators and the total failure of the popular insurrection in Milan,

dealt a fatal blow to the hopes of the Liberals, while the protests of the Sardinian Government against the sequestration by Austria of the property of the exiles who had become naturalized citizens, attracted their attention to the little province at the foot of the Alps, where, unobserved at first, a strong, fresh hand had seized the helm, determined to guide the Piedmontese bark to its desired haven, and to take the wind out of the sails of any and all craft trying to join company and steer for more distant and, as the new pilot deemed, unattainable ports. Cavour—who had abandoned the stanch old Right of Revel and La Margherita and entered into alliance with Rattazzi, the leader of the Liberals in Piedmont, not aiming or pretending to aim at Italian unity, but to oust Austria from Venetian Lombardy and launch Piedmont down the Po to the Adriatic—from the hour that Louis Napoleon crushed revolution in France, saw in the future Emperor at once a patron and an ally, and at the same time recognized in Mazzini a formidable antagonist to be confronted, attacked, and utterly vanquished.

From the moment when the Eastern Question appeared on the horizon, Mazzini's one idea was to arouse betimes the nationalities against Austria when France and England should be unable to assist her, never doubting that Piedmont, with her army, would cross the Ticino to follow up the victory. Cavour, on the contrary, was determined to prevent all and any popular insurrection, and to send Piedmontese troops to fight along with France and England, *even if Austria was their ally*, and no matter what course the war might assume, expecting thus to secure the alliance of France in the future, in the furtherance of his provincial schemes and in the total suppression of the revolutionary element.

During the year 1853, Mazzini sojourned on or near the Lombard frontier, and at the close of the year wrote to his chief confidant in Genoa: "War grows each day more probable; it is inevitable. The republican party of every gradation ought to unite in one single purpose, assume the initiative, and save the country from foreign, dynastic, and domestic intrigues." And, on the 18th of January, 1854: "The English Government, deeming the war inevitable, aware that Austria is on Russia's side, would gladly see her harassed by Italian and Hungarian insurrections. The English Government is trying to induce Piedmont to side with it against Russia, and would deprecate any revolutionary attempt. Therefore, let us take time by the forelock. Hungary will not fail to second an initiative on our part." In this assertion he was supported by Kossuth, who, on his return from the United States, where he did not obtain the million dollars which he had been led to expect, and which, perhaps, he might have secured from the true lovers of liberty if he had not kept persistent silence on the question of slavery, was, nevertheless, convinced that the Americans would espouse the cause of oppressed nationalities in Europe. At a banquet given by Sanders, the United States Consul in London, to Kossuth, Mazzini, and Ledru-Rollin, the alliance between the United States and the federation of the free states of Europe was proclaimed. On the 16th of February, 1854, Kossuth writes to Mazzini:

"Now is our opportunity. The war in the East offers us an occasion to liberate our countries, as Austria must take sides. We can initiate a national movement only from the

Turkish frontier, and how can we open out a path from Turkey until Austria is engaged elsewhere? A successful revolution in Italy would be followed by Hungary; thus Austria would be unable to send reinforcements. But we must wait till France and England are engaged with Russia. Austria will be placed between the horns of a dilemma. If she joins the allies, I shall hoist the flag in Hungary, you in Italy; if she maintains an armed neutrality, then we must both act in Italy, but we must wait till the situation is clearly delineated."

On the 19th of April, France and England bound themselves to maintain the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and invited other Powers to join them. Austria, interrogated, made answer that she could take no part unless she received solid guarantees for the security of her Italian provinces; one of these guarantees being the occupation of Alexandria. Lord Clarendon, who had great hopes of securing a contingent of Piedmontese troops to serve under English generals, refused to entertain the proposition. But Cavour was already in communication with Napoleon's diplomatic agents. The King scouted the idea of his troops acting as mercenaries, but, enthusiastic for his army to win its spurs, declared that he would send his own brother to command the troops. All waited to see what Austria would really do. None of these pourparlers escaped Mazzini, whose one object was to attack the Austrians in front and in flank, and thus force Piedmont to follow suit:

"Piero," he writes, on the 23d of April to Cironi, from the Swiss frontier, "a line to-day, a handshake to-morrow, but silence as to my whereabouts. If we do not act to-day, we deserve to remain enslaved for another hundred years. My gorge rises to see our republicans diplomatize—'Wait till Austria unmasks,' etc. The hour has struck; for Hungary it is passed—the Austrians are concentrated on her frontier, and she can now only follow. It will pass for us if we halt. Austria, isolated, suspected, hated for her neutrality, is less to be feared to-day than when she may ally herself with the Western Powers, even if she does so in bad faith, remaining inactive."

On the 17th of February he writes:

"Scipione Pistrucci is dead, dying without seeing the dawn. With him I lose the last of the first friends who bound themselves to our work and kept faithful to the end. Others live, but have abandoned their faith. None loved their country with his pure, intense, and constant devotion, none are left to love me as he did. He was doomed to die, but it was my dream that he would die in Italy. His mother, sister, wife, and child, driven out of Lombardy, are in Locarno, crushed with sorrow and destitute. Patience! We must carry on the work of the martyrs, bear their cross with our own. In Rome all goes well as yet."

But in Rome all went ill instead. The plans of the Roman conspirators were discovered, the prisons filled, "Marco" (*alias* Giuseppe Petroni) immured in the dungeon of Pagliano, there to live his death in life till the Italian troops, entering by the breach in Porta Pia, liberated him and his fellow-prisoners in 1870, when Mazzini was imprisoned in Gaeta.

Daniel Manin, ex-dictator of republican Venice, threw the vast weight of his influence into the balance, saying to the House of Savoy: "Make Italy and we are with you; if not, not," and to the Constitutionalists: "Think of creating an Italy, not of enlarging Piedmont. Be Italians, not municipalists, and I am with you." I, a Republican, plant the unifying flag; who wills a United Italy,

let him rally to and defend it, and Italy will be." Giorgio Pallavicino, the martyr of the Spielberg, acclaimed Manin, and the aristocratic element of the Lombard emigration rallied to the new flag.

Mazzini made no question of the republican flag, but said with truth: "Cavour has no belief in or wish for unity; he supports the party of Murat in Naples." This fact ascertained, loud were the protests of Manin and of all the patriotic exiles of Naples and Sicily. In Genoa a military committee, composed of Bertani, Medici, Cosenz, Pisacane, agreed with Mazzini that Piedmont would never take the initiative, but disagreed with him as to the wisdom of forcing on an isolated movement in any single city. The arrest and execution of Fortunato Calvi led to the failure of an attempt in Udine; the arrest and imprisonment of Felice Orsini frustrated another attempt. But Mazzini's hopes were centred in Garibaldi, who had visited him in London in 1853 on his return from the United States, stanch as ever and ready for any opportunity to unsheath his sword. Garibaldi affirmed his intention to head any attempt to free the peninsula without regard to the flag, republican or monarchical, if only the aim was unity. And he was on the point of going to attempt the freedom of the Bourbon prisoners prepared by Sir James Hudson, Panizzi, and Bertani, when the steamer chartered for the purpose foundered. Again, he was starting to head a Sicilian insurrection when the leaders, Baron Bentivegna and Spinuzzi, were arrested and shot. At the same time he openly approved the participation of the Piedmontese army in the Crimean war though all the party of action, save Carlo Cattaneo, disapproved, because Austria *had* joined the Western alliance. Speaking to a number of youths who gathered under his windows at Valeggio, he reminded them "that Piedmont was the guardian of the Alps; that Italians of all the provinces were ready to rally round the glorious flag that floated above them; and that he was ready to lead them under its colors." This speech was severely criticised by the Mazzinian newspapers. Garibaldi, indignant, challenged the editor of the *Italia del Popolo*, and chose Cosenz and Medici for his seconds. Savi secured Bixio and Regnati. But the seconds were averse to such a fratricidal duel; a jury was chosen, with Admiral Mameli, father of the soldier-poet Goffredo, and the duel was averted, but the affair sowed fresh divisions between the Garibaldians and Mazzinians, to the benefit of the "lucky third" Piedmont.

Notwithstanding Kossuth's open disavowal of his participation in the abortive revolution of February, 1853, in Milan, his denial of his own proclamation to the Hungarian troops serving then in the Austrian army, Mazzini, in his total self-abnegation, set down his defalcation "to a moment of weakness," to his belief in the necessity of maintaining his prestige (naïvely expressed in his explanation that "a general must never fail"), and cordially accepted his renewed offer of alliance when the Crimean war seemed to offer a common field for action against Austria, whose persistent neutrality so disgusted France and England that an attack on her by revolutionary forces would not assuredly have brought them to the rescue. The subjoined letter, entirely in Kossuth's handwriting, we give

in the original French (16th of March, 1855):

"À MAZZINI:

"Cher ami! Je ne sais pas si vous vous rappelez le fait, comment au commencement des complications en l'Orient, le gouvernement turc a beaucoup hésité de se mettre à la remorque de cette politique occidentale la quelle lui a mis l'Autriche sur le dos. Il balança longtemps entre les nationalités et l'Autriche. Mais ce qui l'a décidé dans le choix, c'est ce que nous ne pouvions pas lui donner des garanties satisfaisantes que l'Italie et la Hongrie soient assez décidées d'agir de manière à laisser espérer qu'elles paralyseront l'Autriche.

"À toutes mes protestations les turcs n'avaient que la réponse, 'Mais d'un côté nous ne voyons aucune action sérieuse dans ces pays là'; de l'autre côté, 'Nous savons que ni vous ni Mazzini vous ne recevez point même autant d'aide financière qu'il vous faudrait pour vos préparatifs. Et ce n'est point rassurant à coup sûr. Nous ne pouvons pas courir le risque de nous attirer l'Autriche sur les bras sans la certitude qui l'Italie et la Hongrie la paralyseront.'

"Voilà donc une précieuse occasion manquée en suite de l'inaction. Qui ne donne signe de vie est censé mort; nous sommes donc parfaitement d'accord sur le besoin d'action. Le parti se suicide en n'agissant pas; il détruit toute confiance dans les peuples sur ses forces, sur son activité, sur sa vitalité s'il laisse passer une occasion telle que celle-ci. Mais où agir? Là est la question. Il n'y a que deux points pour le moment: ce sont Paris, l'Italie. Vous savez l'état de Paris. Vous savez le mécontentement qui y grandit. Une défaite en Crimée, un incident de toute autre genre, peut y déterminer l'explosion; mais un événement extérieur le pourrait aussi, et si les nationalités le peuvent, elles ne devraient pas attendre. Parmi les nationalités, c'est la vôtre dont la situation est la plus avantageuse à l'action ce moment-ci. Et la trahison de la Maison de Savoie (parceque c'est une trahison au point de vue italien que cette alliance avec l'Autriche) aurait dû disillusionner tous ceux qui attendaient l'indépendance de l'Italie d'une bannière royale. Je crois que jusqu'à ce moment l'Italie ne pouvait beaucoup compter sur le Piémont pour les premiers moments de l'action, quoique en cas de succès il aurait suivi; mais à présent c'est différent. Il me semble que Gènes ne mériterait pas la gloire du passé si elle laissait échapper cette occasion d'agir. J'attends presque de la voir briguer l'honneur de l'initiative de l'indépendance de l'Italie républicaine.

"En tout cas, c'est mon avis que l'Italie devrait agir et nous donner le signal si elle le peut. Une insurrection sérieuse nationale en Italie qui promette des chances, et la Hongrie suivra, n'en doutez pas. Mais l'initiative lui est impossible, vu sa position géographique, stratégiquement inabordable pour y amener des armes, etc. (la Turquie m'étant fermée et la Valachie occupée par l'Autriche). Vous-même vous hésitez à lui donner le conseil d'initiative. La concentration de presque toute l'armée autrichienne pèse sur elle, et sans une grande impulsion morale lui venant du dehors, l'appeler à se soulever, elle seule et première, aurait l'air de l'appeler au martyre. Cette grande impulsion doit lui venir de Paris ou bien d'une insurrection italienne, de l'insurrection des troupes hongroises qui sont en Italie, et de ma présence à leur tête.

"Donnez nous une insurrection grande, nationale, italienne, et vous aurez la Hongrie. Donnez-moi un point d'appui qui me donne la possibilité de faire appel aux troupes hongroises en Italie de se ranger autour de moi, en leur présentant des chances de succès par le fait d'une insurrection nationale italienne capable de se maintenir, et vous m'aurez: vous savez mes engagements, je les maintiendrai. La position de l'Autriche vous est favorable. Vous n'avez à faire qu'à une comparative faible portion de ses forces. Et Bonaparte lui-même ne lui pourrait donner des renforts, ce moment-ci. Il n'y a que de recrues. Sa seule armée se perd dans la Crimée. Et les troupes de l'Autriche, engagés aujourd'hui loin, le seront bien plus encore lorsque les mouvements intérieurs auront répondu aux vôtres. La crainte de ces mouvements à elle seule retient l'Autriche à la place où ses forces sont concentrées loin de l'Italie.

"Puisse vos compatriotes écouter votre voix. Le moment est précieux, qu'ils le saisissent. En le laissant passer, et si par hasard une paix est bâclée, nous aurons à le regretter, et à supporter peut-être dix ans de plus de martyre et de honte.

"Adieu. Votre frère de cœur et d'âme,
"L. KOSSUTH."

Once again a regular expedition was prepared. To give an idea of one of the hundreds of letters written by Mazzini, each in a different cipher, we subjoin one to Nicola Ferrari, a devoted henchman to his death in August, 1855:

"Sanmarino is important strategically, presents facilities, has some precious material, some hundreds of muskets in the magazines of the city; then, in the small castle of Serravalle, there are the arms of a company of sharpshooters. In 1849 the Roman legion sold their arms and the country is full of them; a thousand might be requisitioned. The city has no police, a brigadier without a brigade; at night the gates are closed and the key left with the porter; the other entrances are not guarded, the mountain roads are easy. Rimini has a carriage-road; paths lead thither from Cesina, Savignano, Santarcangelo, passing by Verucchio, which is always fordable. One night is sufficient to gain Pesaro from Cesena. Bands of youths arriving in the suburbs under the rocks should leave a detachment to collect arms. Look out that none leave the city, which they must enter at dawn.

"A detachment must start from Rimini, surprise, during the night, the company that is in Serravalle, keep them prisoners, requisition arms, send tidings to the chief of the expedition. In 48 hours all the arms in city and country ought to be collected. The volunteers armed, they must carry rations for three days. From San Marino by Saint' Angelo in Vado it is easy to seize the pass of the Apennines, go on to Sepolcro, Loreto, menace Arezzo, occupy the postal road of Tuscany which joins that of Rome in Foligno, and execute several other operations equally important. The commander of the company in Serravalle is a foe, but a proprietor of the same name is ours. In the same city Giuliano Belluzzi and other Tuscans, who were officers in Rome, are also ours. Mind the name Giuliano, as there is another Belluzzi who must be arrested instantly," etc., etc.

For the *Duce* of a special expedition Mazzini counted on the infallible Bixio, when he was warned that "Nino," madly enamoured, was on the point of marriage, and that his departure from Genoa was not to be hoped for. Mazzini writes July 15, 1854, to Nino Bixio:

"I know that you have been informed of my plans and of my intention to summon you, and that you have answered, 'I cannot.' Friends of 20 years, military men on whom Italy has a right to count, fail in their duty and sink into sloth. Shall we also betray our country and the people who call upon their chiefs? Oh friend of mine, friend of Goffredo, will you also abandon them? You have pledged your word, you are about to enter into sacred ties, I know. But wherein does this hinder you? How? Are not husbands Italians? Liberty, country, the well-being, the honour of Italy, are these confided to celibates only? Does love become slavery? Duty, religion, are they to be left to those who do not love? You will become a father, and do not seek to give a country to your children?

"These thoughts would drive me into skepticism, into atheism, in these last days of life. So, what was sacred to you yesterday was so only at a given time in given circumstances? Love of country ends because you love a woman, because she loves you? I have always held that love consecrates us anew to duty, to virtue; that, loving, we grow better. I too have loved—nay, despite my gray hairs, I still love and am beloved. But if I thought that love

would make me less active in duty towards my country, I would tear that love from my breast. Listen. I do not ask of you to leave Genoa now, nor until events shall make your absence a serious duty. If Genoa should rise up in the name of Italy, could you, because you are married, refrain from quitting your house and fighting with your friends? Nino, this is impossible, you cannot affirm its possibility. Well, I only ask you to act with me when the summons comes from the centre or from elsewhere. Then indeed you must come to lead an expedition because, of all I know and trust, you are the one to guide it to victory. Let me know only that I can count on you at a given day, a given hour, and I will not ask you to leave Genoa to prepare for action—but only to act. If you refuse this, I have but to bow my head and say; 'Another son lost to Italy.' Your friend
JOSEPH."

What Nino's answer would have been had any insurrection broken out in Italy, can only be judged from the fact that never once was he absent from the roll-call. 1859, 1860, 1866, 1870 all saw him in the van. In 1857, when the Pisacane expedition to Naples ended in the massacre of Sapri, Bixio was on the high seas, and that "failure" was Mazzini's last revolutionary attempt. The long, keenly fought duel was over; Cavour had conquered. Italy, which had halted so long at the parting of the ways, followed the victor and his imperial ally, and went in for monarchical unity. Unity at least was saved, and Mazzini had a bitter Pisgah view of what was *not* his promised land! J. W. M.

Correspondence.

EDUCATIONAL WORK AMONG THE COLORED PEOPLE OF ST. LOUIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you have from time to time referred in the *Nation* to the subject of the possibilities of educational work among the colored people, it may be of interest to your readers to be told of an experiment in this direction made this last season for the first time in the city of St. Louis. In connection with efforts here in past years to have educational lecture courses more especially for the wage-earning classes of the community, it struck me as worth while to make the test with the more enlightened elements of the large colored population. Scarcely any one to whom I broached the matter gave me encouragement with regard to it, thinking somehow the plan would not work. I called together a small committee of these people and talked the matter over with them. They were somewhat dubious in regard to it, explaining that they were divided up by lodges, secret societies, and churches of many kinds, and they felt quite uncertain as to the audiences they could promise, or as to whether the expenses could be covered. But they were ready to go ahead and give it a trial.

A course of eight lectures was arranged for, dealing with the subject of "America and American History," and the lecturers came from some of the ablest and most representative white citizens of St. Louis, including two or three of the foremost lawyers and several teachers or professors from the Washington University. The evening was divided into two parts, and for the opening there was a "Practical Talk" of twenty minutes or half-an-hour by some one of the well-known and prominent white cler-

gy of the city, including one Roman Catholic, a Congregationalist, a Jewish rabbi, the Bishop of the Episcopal Church, a Presbyterian, and a Unitarian. Nearly all these persons consented with alacrity to do the work assigned to them—of course without remuneration. The chief difficulty, perhaps, was in getting all the clergy who were asked. One or two of the "swells" from this profession looked askance and were inclined to hold aloof.

We had a "Committee of Forty," made up from the colored people, to take charge of the practical arrangements and to dispose of a twenty-five-cent. course ticket in order to cover the necessary expenses. The lectures were all illustrated, but were emphatically educational and most instructive to any class of persons. They were given on Saturday evenings in the winter, and the hall selected for the purpose would accommodate about 200 people. To the surprise of many persons the effort proved a phenomenal success. After considerable experience in this city in arranging educational work for almost every class of persons and of every grade, it struck me that no effort ever put forth in this direction had gone on as smoothly and held out so well as in this particular instance. Again and again the hall was crowded to the doors. More than once there were twenty-five or thirty grown men standing, for lack of seats, an hour and a half listening to the "Practical Talk" of the clergyman and the lecture which followed. Two or three evenings when it was stormy the hall seemed almost as full as ever. The people were pleased and delighted in the extreme. They felt somehow as if a peculiar honor had been shown to them, and as if at last for the first time the same kind of privileges were given to them which were offered to other people. Usually, with such lecture courses, there is enthusiasm at the start, and the attendance plays out toward the end, after the novelty has worn off. But this does not seem to have been the case in the instance I am speaking of, and the people now, I think, are looking forward with eagerness to another similar course the following winter. They have assured me that they could have placed 800 or 1,000 tickets as easily as 400. The only trouble lay in the smallness of the size of the hall. Yet these lectures would have been instructive and educational to any average citizen of the United States.

I mention this because it has been, as far as I know, the only experiment ever tried in this direction in St. Louis, and went contrary, I fancy, to the expectations of a great many people. It proved to my mind as an educator conclusively that the time has come when we dare not class the whole colored race as all of one type, but must recognize that the same grades exist among them as among white citizens; that they too have elements wishing to improve themselves and continue to educate themselves throughout life; and that the gradations of character as well as possibilities for intellectual culture are the same with them as with white people.

Another striking instance of the same kind has come under my experience and observation this last winter, also in St. Louis. A representative from a group of twenty-five colored adult women came to me, asking whether I could arrange some kind of study work for them and secure a compe-

tent leader. This demand was spontaneous, coming wholly from themselves. I proposed a course of lectures on the "History of Painting" for them, and was able to secure a very competent leader, well-equipped for the work, from the best art talent of St. Louis. Oddly enough, the greatest difficulty came in being able to get a hall or meeting-place for them. At last, however, a suitable one was found, and this class has been doing, the teacher assures me, most satisfactory work. They have been faithful in their attendance, keen in their observations, and eager to do the reading assigned them. The teacher has had reason to be proud of the class and the serious work which has been done by them. It was probably as good work and as thoroughly carried out as anything undertaken by the most educated women of the white citizens of our community. It is not to be supposed, of course, that this represents the average. I cite the instance only to show that the time has come when we must use discrimination and cease to talk of the colored people as if they were all of one kind. This educational experiment has worked to the contrary—at least in St. Louis. WALTER L. SHELDON.

4065 DELMAR AVE., ST. LOUIS, MO.,
April 2, 1901.

MAN ALWAYS FIT FOR FREEDOM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An answer to the imperialistic contention that the United States Government must not take its hand off of Cuba because that island is not yet ready for independence, is tersely given in the following paragraph from Macaulay's essay on Milton:

"Many politicians of our time are in the habit of laying it down as a self-evident proposition, that no people ought to be free until they are fit to use their freedom. The maxim is worthy of the fool in the old story, who resolved not to go into the water until he had learned to swim. If men are to wait for liberty till they become wise and good in slavery, they may indeed wait for ever."

The politicians of our time seem not to have advanced much beyond those of 1825.

G. S. W.

April 1, 1901.

GARNETT'S ANTHOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *International Monthly* for April there is an advertisement of Dr. Richard Garnett's 'Anthology,' which reads thus:

"One of the principal features of the Anthology is the unique arrangement, which is Dr. Garnett's idea, known as the Chronological and Historical Arrangement."

The principal feature of the "International Library," of which the 'Anthology' is an enlargement, was the chronological and topical arrangement of the various excerpts. For instance, the episode of Odysseus's visit to the Phaiakians was preceded by Matthew Arnold's essay on the translation of Homer, and followed by poems and other selections that seemed to be apropos. When I saw that the publisher attributed to Dr. Garnett this arrangement of material, which I had supposed was original with myself, I wrote and asked him if it were so, and I immediately received a most courteous letter from him, absolutely disclaiming any wish to pose as the originator of this arrangement. It

seems only fair to call attention to this matter in the interest of truth.

Faithfully yours,

NATHAN HASKELL DOLE.

NEW YORK, April 1, 1901.

Notes.

The Oxford University Press (New York: H. Frowde) will soon publish an historical essay long in preparation by Prof. J. Earle, 'The Alfred Jewel,' with a map and many illustrations, some colored; 'Legislative Methods and Forms,' by Sir Courtenay Ilbert, Parliamentary Counsel to the Treasury; 'The Relations of Geography and History,' by the Rev. H. B. George; and a new 'School History of England,' the joint work of several teachers.

Forthcoming from Longmans, Green & Co. are 'My Experiences of the Boer War,' from the German of Adalbert Count Sternberg; 'Notes on Reconnoitring in South Africa; Boer War, 1899-1900'; 'Abyssinia: Through the Lion-Land to the Court of the Lion of Judah,' by Herbert Vivian; 'Occasional Essays on Native South Indian Life,' by Stanley P. Rice; 'In Tibet and Chinese Turkestan,' a record of three years' exploration, by Capt. H. H. P. Deasy; 'The Wildfowler in Scotland,' by John Guille Millais; 'Old Cottages and Farmhouses in Kent and Sussex,' by W. Galsworthy Davie; 'Studies in Peerage and Family History,' by J. Horace Round; and 'Some Records of the Later Life of Harriet, Countess Granville,' by her granddaughter, the Hon. Mrs. Oldfield.

Further announcements from Macmillan Co. are an English translation of a timely address by Chancellor Rümelin of the University of Tübingen, on 'The Relation between Politics and the Moral Law'; 'The New Basis of Geography,' by Jacques W. Redway; and 'A Short History of Germany,' by Ernest F. Henderson.

Among D. Appleton & Co.'s announcements for April we note 'The Woman's Book of Sports,' by J. Parmly Paret, thoroughly illustrated with full-page half-tones from instantaneous photographs; 'The Play of Man,' by Prof. Karl Groos, translated by Elizabeth L. Baldwin; and 'The Spanish People,' by Martin A. S. Hume.

"Pioneer Towns of America" is the title of a new historic series undertaken by T. Y. Crowell & Co., beginning with the 'Story of Old Falmouth [Portland]' and the 'Story of Pemaquid.' The same firm will issue Forman's edition of Keats in a handy volume.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, announce the immediate publication of 'Theology at the Dawn of the Twentieth Century,' a symposium of original essays by many eminent theologians and laymen of both England and America (forty-six in number), grouped under twenty-nine main titles, and edited by the Rev. J. Vynwy Morgan, D.D., of Baltimore.

If sufficient support can be assured, Mr. James Warrington, No. 203 Walnut Place, Philadelphia, will publish a facsimile of Beissel's Treatise on Music which forms a preface to the 'Turtel Taube' bearing the Ephrata imprint of 1747. A competent English translation will face each page of the facsimile, and the treatise will be annotated by Mr. Warrington. The book, a foolscap quarto, will be sold, to subscribers only, in two editions. It will be the pre-

cursor of similar antiquarian musical reproductions.

The announcement has just been made by a committee of American anthropologists, of which Mr. F. W. Hodge, Managing Editor of the *American Anthropologist*, is Secretary, of the proposed publication by a leading New York house of a handsome illustrated volume containing more than thirty folk-tales which were recorded and translated by the late Frank Hamilton Cushing during his long and intimate association with the Zuni Indian tribe of New Mexico. The price of the work will be \$3.50. Information and subscription blanks can be supplied by the Secretary, whose address is Washington, D. C.

Mr. Henry D. Sedgwick, jr., has written of Father Hecker in Small, Maynard & Co.'s series of "Beacon Biographies"—beautiful little books with one defect, the extreme narrowness of the inner margins. It is difficult to imagine how Mr. Sedgwick's sketch could have been better within the limits to which he was confined. The main interest of it inheres in the conflict in Father Hecker's mind between the traditional Roman Catholic ideals and those of the modern world, and there is no more important chapter than the last, which relates the fortunes of Father Hecker's "Americanism" since his death: its condemnation by the papal court, and the meek submission of Archbishop Ireland and other great ecclesiastics who were enamored of Father Hecker's method—the *argumentum ad hominem Americanum*. As a help towards understanding the sainthood of former times, Father Hecker is of great value. Mr. Sedgwick writes unsmilingly even where, during Hecker's novitiate, his brains were out with much fasting and yet he thought he had enough left to make a priest. Such were his rigors that "his superiors marvelled at his stupidity, and his brethren deemed him a fool," and it took weeks of hard labor to learn the *Pater Noster*. Perhaps the most amusing circumstance is his invitation to Thoreau to go with him on a pilgrimage to Rome, begging their way across Europe.

Dean Slattery has made, and Longmans, Green & Co. have published, a good biography of Felix Reville Brunot, "A Civilian in the War for the Union and President of the First Board of Indian Commissioners." Every clergyman of any prominence is pretty sure to arrive at a biography. Laymen, however worthy, are less fortunate—if that is the right word. Mr. Brunot's biography is on this account all the more welcome. It was worth while to write this story of a business man's career, "to encourage the others" in the best possible sense. He was a man of high character and great public spirit. "Wise men are not always wise," and his unwisdom was manifested in his advocacy of a Christian amendment to the Constitution of the United States. His judgment was habitually sound. He was a forerunner of Mr. Carnegie in Pittsburgh, a principal founder and benefactor of the Mercantile Library of that city. During the Civil War he was an ardent and active patriot. His interest in the sick and wounded soldiers took him to the front, where he was arrested as an army surgeon and taken to Libby Prison. His experience there made him more efficient after his release on behalf of the Sanitary Commission. In his whole life nothing was more creditable to him than his

presentation and active support of the "Brunot Resolutions," as they were rightly called, at the General Episcopal Convention of 1862. Mild as those resolutions were in support of the Union and the war, they marked the highest point of loyalty to which the Episcopal Church attained. When the war was over, Mr. Brunot was one of those who sustained Horace Binney's resolution rejoicing in the return of peace and the destruction of slavery; but he and his friends were voted down. Mr. Brunot's service on the Board of Indian Commissioners was highly honorable, and Dean Slattery does not exaggerate its influence on Indian affairs.

From the University Press at Strassburg we receive Dr. William A. Dunn's interesting inaugural dissertation on "Thomas De Quincey's relation to German Literature and Philosophy." This is far from a typical "Einfluss" thesis, to be passed with the summary remark that the author knows little of De Quincey or of German literature and philosophy, but is strong on the "relation." On the contrary, Dr. Dunn seems to possess more than a conventional knowledge of German letters, and of De Quincey's moral and literary personality he is a just yet kindly critic. The final result of the study is, as it should be, chiefly negative. De Quincey was almost a life-long amateur of things German; but, as Dr. Dunn shows clearly, he never came to that passionate preoccupation with them which made Coleridge and Carlyle leaders in the better sort of Teutonizing. His interest was rather that of the curious inquirer, and his business was to spread such an interest in salable articles for the magazines. In the case of Jean Paul, with whose highly imaginative mind the Opium-eater felt much sympathy, there may have been some actual influence. But even here it is scarcely wise to refer the similarity of rolling sentences, pervaded by vague, elevated sentiment, to any conscious imitation on De Quincey's part. Dr. Dunn's work is scholarly in detail, and stylistically can be read without discomfort.

Of the authors of "Elements of the Theory and Practice of Cookery," Mary E. Williams and Katharine Rolston Fisher (Macmillan), one is supervisor of cookery in the public schools of Manhattan and the Bronx, in succession to her associate. They make no pretension that their work is more than a primer of household cookery and science—"to draw into closer union teachers and students of household science, homemakers, and all who are interested in the welfare of American homes." They have grappled bravely, hopefully, and intelligently with their task, and in the 326 pages of which the book is composed they have concentrated a great amount of very useful information in relation to every detail that concerns the household and the feeding of its members. Whatever may be our reluctance, we are led on from the "kitchen fire" to the "potato"; we are entangled in the meshes of "tissue-building food: eggs and milk"; but rally at "bread," and are hopeful at "food and its relation to life," and so on from one inspiring topic to another until our joy culminates in "beverages: tea, coffee and cocoa." To be specially commended is the section devoted to "cuts, marketing, and food-value of meats." This will prove genuinely helpful to the young housekeeper, in

fact to any purchaser of meat for the household. It is to be regretted that as much cannot be said for some of the recipes. Two in particular, one for "drawn butter" and the other for "Tartar sauce," if concocted literally as given, would surely lead to painful episodes in any family in which they were attempted.

Probably few phases of the prevailing interest in things out-of-doors have encountered as formidable obstacles in the direction of suitable literature for the beginner as Mycology, or, more nearly correctly, Mycophagy. Until very lately, the ambitious novice, like the specialist, has been obliged to go to scattered memoirs and learned revisions for the desired information. Hence, to many who desire to be introduced to this group of plants, "The Mushroom Book," by Nina Marshall, will be a welcome aid. It belongs to the series of popular-science works from the press of Doubleday, Page & Co., already well represented by "The Butterfly Book" and others. "The Mushroom Book" introduces the beginner, through descriptions and plates, in part colored, to the most important edible and poisonous forms, placing him quickly in possession of the facts most important to the successful mycophagist. In general, the illustrations and text are clear and fairly accurate. An introductory key familiarizes the reader with the larger groups, and facilitates the work of identification.

Those who are acquainted with Bergen's "Elements of Botany" will be glad to learn that Ginn & Co. have just put out another book by the same author, entitled "Foundations of Botany." The body of it consists of two parts, dealing respectively with structure and function and with the relations of plants to their surroundings. The chief facts of plant anatomy and plant physiology are stated with admirable clearness and proportion; and well-chosen experiments, of a nature perfectly practicable for pupils of secondary grade, amply illustrate the principles enunciated. The principal features of gross morphology follow, and the usual instructions concerning the homology of parts finds place. Part I. closes with several chapters on cryptogamic forms, and directions are given for the study of the most significant features. In part II. the writer has avoided the extreme to which many writers of recent elementary text-books have seen fit to go concerning ecology in the high school. Totally to omit a discussion of this interesting phase of botany would be to ask the pupil to close his eyes to many of the most significant and accessible of plant relations; but to expect him to deal satisfactorily with problems of physiographic ecology, especially when obliged to accept half-tone substitutes for nature, seems certainly to invite criticism. In the book under discussion the author has reached the golden mean. Part II. closes with a chapter on the struggle for existence. Four floras of modest pretensions have been prepared for as many sections of the country. They cover about six hundred species each; Professor Tracy furnishes that for the Southern States; Alice Eastwood of the California Academy of Sciences contributes floras for the Rocky Mountain and Pacific editions; the author himself, that for the edition of the Northern and Central States. The book as a whole is characterized by practicability and balance, and is plainly the

work of an experienced teacher who knows his subject.

Some years since, Mr. R. B. Marston, the author of 'A List of Books relating to Fish, Fishing, and Fisheries,' to Supplement the "Bibliotheca Piscatoria" of T. Westwood & T. Satchell, published in 1883, just issued in London by Sampson Low, Marston & Co., said that "the best monument they [Westwood and Satchell] could have would be a revised and enlarged edition of their work, brought down to date." This publication covers so much of the labor of the undertaking that, with its assistance, the task of making the "monument" to those men who did the vast amount of arduous and gratuitous work for the cause of angling literature, would not be a hard one. Mr. Marston's compilation has about 950 titles (the 'B. P.' has something over 4,000), and he has apparently solved the difficulty as to what entitles a book to admission to an angling catalogue by entering many written on other subjects, and having incidental references to angling; e. g., 'Wet Days at Edgewood' (by 'Ik Marvel,' but catalogued under 'Edgewood'); 'White's Natural History of Selborne,' 'Norwood,' by H. W. Beecher, etc.; besides numerous railway advertisements. Why should a railway company which states with general untruthfulness the chances for sport open to travellers by its lines, or a novelist who introduces a fishing scene to enliven the pages of his book, be immortalized in future editions of the 'Bibliotheca Piscatoria' as angling authors? Mr. Marston's 'List' is interleaved for the purpose of enabling its possessors to enter the titles of books hereafter published.

The evolution of the religious press from folio form to that of the periodical has overtaken the *Home Journal* of Willis & Morris, founded in 1846, along with a change of name to *Town and Country*, and, of course, the introduction of process illustrations.

The *Geographical Journal* for March contains the addresses at the Queen's commemoration meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, the main topic of which was the growth of the Empire during her reign. After sketching the expansion in America, Australia, and Africa, Sir G. T. Goldie said, what no one conversant with its history can deny, that "the chief aim in dealing with the colored races has undoubtedly been beneficence, though this aim, like other human ideals, has too often been marred by imperfect knowledge or faulty judgment. But perhaps the dominant note throughout this period of expansion has been the devotion to duty of those concerned in it, whether soldiers, sailors, or civilians." Col. Sir T. H. Holdich, speaking with the experience of thirty years' service in India, bears eloquent testimony to the personal loyalty of the Indians, especially the soldiers, to their Empress, a feeling which he believes has "bound together the sympathies of all the scattered nationalities" of the land. In an account of explorations of the Canadian Rockies, at the source of the Columbia, the fact is noted that "very few minerals of any value have been found so far. The chief wealth of the country lies in its scenery." Sir John Murray, in his bathymetrical survey of the freshwater lochs of Scotland, remarks that in Loch Leven an American weed (*Elodea canadensis*, or choke-pondweed) has become firmly established, and "is causing a great deal of trouble, all the means hitherto tried

for the purpose of destroying it being only of temporary benefit." This article is illustrated by eight colored plates.

The annual report of the Woman's Education Association of Massachusetts gives special prominence to the thirty-five travelling libraries sustained by it. These, aggregating a thousand volumes, have been sent to thirty-two towns—the most urgent calls coming from the remote villages—and have had a circulation of 4,000. There are also twelve sets of pictures which have made 113 visits to 89 towns during the past year. They have been hung in churches, Sunday-schools, town halls, private houses, libraries, and, in some towns, in every school. A new and valuable branch of the work is the publication of a list of books recommended for small libraries. Attention is also called to the fact that Miss Caroline F. Stewart, "who has held one of our fellowships; has just won her Ph.D. degree at the University of Berlin, being the first American woman to receive this honor. It has only once before been conferred upon a woman, a German Jewess. The candidate for this degree has publicly to defend his dissertation against three judges, besides delivering a closing address. The award of this degree to a woman was so exceptional an event that the hall was crowded to suffocation with curious spectators."

The Berlin *Reichsanzeiger* gives a preliminary account of a noteworthy archaeological find made by Dr. Koldewey, who has for a year and more, under the direction of the Orientgesellschaft, been making researches in Babylon. He has found the Procession Street of the god Marduk, paved with limestone blocks, each a metre square, and with small red and white plates of breccia, nearly all of them bearing as an inscription the name of Nebuchadnezzar. Then it has now been definitely settled that the building discovered in the hall of Amrum in May, 1900, is none other than the famous national shrine of Babylonia, the great Marduk temple Esagila. This discovery determines a number of questions concerning the topography of ancient Babylonia. The plan of this gigantic shrine, which Dr. Koldewey now has in preparation, promises to be of exceptional interest for archaeological research; and since the contemporary of Alexander the Great, the Baal priest Borossos, made use of the archives of this temple, important scientific results are expected. This is all the more probable as the dirt of ages that covered this temple has been the best protection of archaeological material against modern vandalism.

To every serious-minded German it must be disheartening to know that the enlightened Government of Prussia does not see its way clear to provide for every child in the kingdom the full blessings of that common-school education which has long been considered the chief pride of Germany. Recent debates in the Prussian House of Representatives have again brought out the fact that the lack of teachers in that state is both chronic and acute, and that, while it is by far the worst in the provinces east of the Elbe, it prevails more or less in all parts of the state. Its main and fundamental cause is the too frequent misery of the teacher's existence, and its results are either closed school-houses or such unreasonably large classes that instruction becomes well-nigh impossible. About one-fourth of the common schools of Prussia are in this condition,

which does not exist in other German states. The only effective remedy of the evil is better pay and a more generous treatment of the lower ranks of teachers. That the state still fails to apply this remedy is the more astonishing and pitiable as reliable statistics, covering a period of many years, show that, in Prussia at least, popular education reduces lawlessness and criminality, and that, with good educational advantages, even a denser population reaches a higher moral standard than the people of the less populous districts in which the schools are neglected.

On the 15th of last October, Prof. August Mau, the greatest living Pompeian scholar, celebrated his sixtieth birthday. As a part of that celebration, a sum of money was collected among his friends in Rome, with which careful copies of some of the Pompeian wall paintings might be made. These copies were to serve as the basis for a new and definitive work on the subject. Meanwhile, the plan has been enlarged, and an international committee in Rome, headed by the Secretaries of the German Archaeological Institute, has taken the matter in charge. The sum of \$7,500 is needed in order that the copies of the paintings may be made by thoroughly first-class artists and their accuracy assured. In view of the close relations existing between the German Institute and the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, and of the debt which all scholars owe to Professor Mau himself, at the request of the committee in Rome an American committee has been formed to co-operate in this work. This committee consists of Professors Hale of Chicago, Kelsey of Michigan, Marquand of Princeton, Norton, Director of the School in Rome, Peck of Yale, Platner of Western Reserve, and Smith of Harvard. This committee will shortly issue a detailed circular. Those who may desire to aid in this matter or to obtain further information, are requested to address the Secretary of the Committee, Professor Platner, No. 24 Cornell Street, Cleveland, Ohio.

—Echo of a forgotten controversy seems to be a fit characterization for the 'Memorandum' of the plaintiff in our latest arbitration. So fast has history been made of late that the mishaps of the American pelagic sealers *James Hamilton Lewis*, *Cape Horn Pigeon*, *C. H. White*, and *Kate and Anna*—who felt the claws of the Russian bear outside the three-mile limit and were seized on the open sea as lawful prizes—already attract little notice. There is nothing remarkable in their story. Russia, following our lead in violating the law of nations, seized several of the pelagic nuisances which were hovering around her seal preserves, with intentions doubtless like those of Tom Hall in Kipling's ballad, but wholly within their rights, until a trespass or other overt act had been committed and witnessed. Now, by an agreement of September 8, 1900, the claims for damages are to be submitted to Councillor Asser of the Netherlands for arbitration. Russia is to have three months to reply to the 'Mémoire de la Partie Demanderesse à l'Honorable Arbitre, M. T. M. C. Assér, etc., etc.' (London: Chiswick Press) now submitted; within three more a memorandum in rebuttal may be filed by the claimants; and three months more are provided for papers in sur-rebuttal. A pro rogation of thirty days is permitted dur-

ing the proceedings, and the arbitrator is allowed six months for consideration, so that about two years must elapse from the agreement to arbitrate and ten years from the date of the alleged injuries before a final settlement will be attained. It may be remarked, in passing, that the acts which will, altogether, cause a loss to the United States of a million and a half of dollars, were caused not by any direct action of the Department of State, but by a regulation of the Treasury which it was warned was illegal before it was put into effect, but which the Treasury, apparently without reference to the State Department, proceeded to enforce. The possibilities involved in such independent action by a department not charged with the conduct of foreign affairs, and without authorization by the Executive, are too obvious to require further comment.

—The day of the 'Complete Letter Writer' is happily dead, but there will always exist amiable persons who are eager to instruct in matters that every one ought to know, and, incidentally, to contribute one more volume to the world's superfluous literature. The compiler, H. E. Gavit, of 'The Etiquette of Correspondence' (New York: A. Wessels Co.) devotes herself nominally to the form of the modern letter or note, and the etiquette of present-day usage in the matter of styles of address, paper, ink, seals, etc. But the modern mania for an appearance of thoroughness and historical treatment invades even this little handbook, and we are not spared the tiresome and inevitable savage with his "red clay or burnt wood," or the insufferable Pliny, till, through Elizabeth and Victoria, we are guided to the suitable epistle to be addressed to President McKinley. Some amusing and occasionally astonishing rules for "correct form" follow. Coupled with a warning not to use ruled paper in social correspondence is the information that, in writing a request to an acquaintance, "it is good form always to enclose a postage stamp." This, at any rate, is something new. On page 40 the writer speaks of hatchments as though their use were obsolete, but that is not the case, at any rate in London. The mention of hatchments in connection with letter-writing is a pardonable irrelevance. The book is apparently designed for those whose social correspondence has been thrust upon them late in life, so that we have no fault to find with the minute directions as to how to address an envelope, and the proper place for the stamp, or the warning not to put "En ville" outside a letter or "Kind Friend" as a form of address within. We particularly commend to the social aspirant the letter "with a strong society dash" (p. 141), or that "with less airy persiflage and more dignity" on the same page. We wish that we had space to reproduce these gems. The postal regulations condensed from the Official Guide are, of course, useful. The final glossary of Latin, French, and Italian phrases recommended for use in correspondence is a cruel snare for the feet of those that seek after "correct form."

—'Chapters from Illinois History' (H. S. Stone & Co.) represents the chief part of a work which the late Edward G. Mason was preparing upon the annals of his own State. While it must be regarded as a fragment, it covers a relatively long period, and would have formed the bulk of the book which was

projected and begun, though never finished. Mr. Mason, who showed himself an eminent man in more than one way, had a great fondness for the study of records relating to Illinois, and we must regret that he was unable to complete his labor of love. What he has left is well studied, excellently written, and filled with a spirit of quiet enthusiasm which one always delights to encounter. After all, he succeeded in covering the best as well as the largest part of his field, for while he begins with the Champlain map of 1632, he reaches the Chicago massacre of 1812. Nearly two-thirds of the space is devoted to "The Land of the Illinois," a general subject under which discovery, exploration, occupation, and settlement are treated in separate chapters. "Illinois in the Eighteenth Century" comes next in point of prominence, with its studies of old Fort Chartres and Col. John Todd's 'Record-Book.' Illinois in the Revolution, the march of the Spanish across Illinois, and the Chicago massacre are the remaining topics. The text takes the form of a straightforward narrative, supplemented by bibliographical notes, and stripped of all philosophical observations or other extraneous matter. Mr. Mason seems not to have done much at first hand (in the archives of Paris, for instance), but for one who looked to the broad facts already ascertained rather than to the smaller details which may lurk in the background, he shows himself extremely well informed. One can follow his reading quite easily through the help afforded by numerous references, and it is clear that he had mastered the best literature relating to the connection between the Illinois country and New France. The two figures who loom up most prominently in these pages are La Salle and Col. John Todd, for both of whom Mr. Mason had a just and lively admiration. Concerning the former, he quotes approvingly the words wherewith "Tonty closes his brief and feeling account of the man whom he had served so well": "Behold the fate of one of the greatest men of the age; of wonderful ability, and capable of accomplishing any enterprise." As for Todd, Mr. Mason calls him "a pioneer of progress, education, and liberty, and the real founder of this Commonwealth, who served his countrymen long and well, and died a noble death, fighting for their homes and firesides against a savage enemy, and giving his life, as he had given the best of his years and strength, for the cause of civilization and free government in the western world." To those who think that modern Chicago has no history, it may be a new fact that so recently as June 22, 1893, the roots of the "gaunt old cottonwood" called the Massacre Tree were still extant, though buried beneath a strip of pavement. It seems a pity that the town could not have preserved this relic and made of it a kind of Irminsul.

—When some years ago the present writer, an American, declared that the Japanese themselves would one day erect a monument in grateful recognition of Commodore Perry's successful mission to Japan, a hearty laugh greeted the suggestion. Nevertheless, the Japanese have formed the Belyu Kyo-kai (American Association in Japan) and a definite resolution to do this very thing. They are now collecting subscriptions to carry their proposal into effect. It was at Kurihama, on the shores of Yedo Bay, that a temporary pavilion for the re-

ception of President Fillmore's letter at the hands of Commodore Matthew C. Perry was erected by the Yedo Government in 1853. The object of the mission was "friendship, commerce, a supply of coal and provisions, and protection for our shipwrecked people." Recently Rear-Admiral L. A. Beardslee, who was a cadet in one of Perry's ships, visited Japan and was received with warmth and a pageantry that reproduced vividly the life and costumes of fifty years ago. Under the vigorous stimulus of Baron Kaneko, formerly a student in Harvard University, the memorial enterprise has been pushed forward. A committee of governors, mayors, and merchants have decided that whatever other magnificent things may be attempted, there shall be erected on the strand, on the very spot where stood the door to the treaty pavilion, a stone monument twenty-two feet high. Subscriptions will close in Japan on April 30, and the memorial is to be dedicated July 14, 1901. The unhewn stone shaft, from Sendai, will be 15 feet 5 inches high, and set on a pedestal 7x7 feet, the whole expense being 2,500 yen. The money is to be raised by popular subscription. If the amount subscribed exceeds the sum required, the remainder is to be applied in beautifying Perry Park and in building a suitable road to it. The town authorities have donated 1,500 tsubo (about 6,000 square feet of land), and have already inaugurated and inscribed a wooden shaft which will be replaced by the stone. The planting of the young pine trees, seven in number, by Admiral and Mrs. Beardslee and another American and four Japanese of prominence, was recently accomplished, making the beginning of the park. Subscriptions are received by Mr. Otani, President of the Seventy-second National Bank of Yokohama. Meanwhile, a larger memorial, in the shape of a lighthouse in Yedo Bay, with a statue of Perry upon the top, has been determined upon by a powerful body of men, who, nevertheless, are warmly interested in and are personally supporting the more modest enterprise.

—If we measure the value of an historian by the number and importance of the facts for which we are indebted to him, there are few historians who can be compared to Flavius Josephus. So M. Reinach commences his introduction to the new French edition of Josephus's works. Josephus has left us four works in all, the largest and best known of which is the 'Jewish Antiquities.' The first ten books of the 'Antiquities' are a mere résumé of the contents of the Old Testament, valuable to the scholar only as they incorporate something of the oral tradition prevalent among the Jews in Josephus's time. The last ten, however, are an historical document of the first importance, our only source for the centuries of Jewish history immediately preceding the Christian era. The 'Jewish War,' recording the history of the Jewish rebellion of 66-70 A. D., is also a document of unique importance, practically our only account of that remarkable uprising. Besides these two greater works, we have an autobiographical sketch describing Josephus's personal relations to the Jewish rebellion, of which he was a general despite himself, and which forms a welcome supplement to his 'Jewish War.' The fourth work is the apology for Judaism, known as 'Contra Apionem,' in which he combats an anti-Jewish feeling not unlike the anti-Semitism of to-day. This work is

valuable chiefly for its long citations from Greek historians who had access to the sacerdotal annals of Egypt, Chaldaea, and Tyre, but whose works, except for these extracts, are entirely lost.

—Although Josephus was a Jew, and his writings deal exclusively with Jewish history and Jewish religion, his works have been, up to the present, altogether neglected by the Jews, he being looked upon in the light of a renegade. In the Christian Church, on the other hand, his writings were freely used from the beginning, and, with the revival of learning in the fifteenth and following centuries, numerous translations, chiefly of the 'Jewish Antiquities' and the 'Jewish War,' began to appear in various modern languages. There was a time when almost every family claiming to be educated possessed a Josephus. Latterly, however, he has fallen into neglect, and only a few technical scholars now read his writings; most students having recourse rather to more modern historical productions, where the material has been worked over and presented in a modern dress and with modern interpretations. In 1887 Niese, in Germany, began the publication of a new and critical edition of the complete works. This seems to have revived interest in Josephus, and called renewed attention to the great importance of his writings, as well as to the necessity of more modern translations from critical texts. In France Jewish scholars, making some amends for the neglect of the past, have taken up the study of his works, and the Société des Études Juives is now publishing, under the general editorship of M. Théodore Reinach, a French translation of Josephus, based in general on Niese's text, and provided with notes. There are to be in all seven volumes, four containing the 'Antiquities,' two the 'Jewish War' and the 'Autobiography,' and the seventh 'Contra Apionem,' with fragments of the Jewish-Greek historians prior to Josephus, a general index, and perhaps a study of the life and works of Josephus. The first volume, translated and annotated by Julien Weill, containing the first five books of the 'Jewish Antiquities,' appeared in 1900, from the press of Ernest Leroux, Paris, and the general editor promises the succeeding volumes shortly. A similar work in English would, we should suppose, meet a demand. At present we have only Whiston's translation of Josephus's works (1737), and Traill's translation of the 'Jewish War' (1868).

THE ASCENT OF MOUNT ST. ELIAS.

The Ascent of Mount St. Elias [Alaska]. By H. R. H. Prince Luigi Amedeo di Savoia, Duke of the Abruzzi. Narrated by Filippo de Filippi. Illustrated by Vittorio Sella and translated by Signora Linda Villari with the author's supervision. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co. 1900.

For many years past the great peak of Mt. St. Elias has excited the curiosity of geographers and the ambition of mountain-climbers, partly because it was supposed to be the loftiest summit on the North American continent, partly because it is an extremely noble object as seen from the Pacific Ocean. It was discovered and named by Bering, a German navigator in the Russian service in 1741, but no attempt was made to explore the region round it until 1874, when the United States, having pur-

chased Alaska from Russia in 1867, sent an expedition which partly examined the prodigious glaciers encompassing the mountain, and so roused public interest that attempts to ascend the peak were made by an organized American party in 1886 and by an English party of Alpinists in 1888. The undertaking, in which these two parties had failed because the wrong side of the mountain was attacked and the weather was extremely unpropitious, was resumed in 1890, in a more systematic way. An expedition headed by Prof. Israel C. Russell of the United States Geological Survey explored the whole southern and eastern face of the mountain, and ascertained the proper route to the summit, but was prevented by bad weather from reaching the top. Another attempt in the following year brought the same intrepid and persistent explorer to a height of 14,000 feet, when heavy snowfalls compelled him to retreat. So things remained till 1897, when that which Americans and Englishmen had failed to accomplish was achieved by a group of Italians, headed by Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy (Duke of the Abruzzi), and aided by experienced guides from the Italian Alps.

Their difficulties, their hardships, and their ultimate triumph are clearly and modestly narrated in this sumptuous volume, which is copiously illustrated, and has been admirably translated into English by Madame Villari, wife of the distinguished historian, Pasquale Villari of Florence. No American will grudge to the Italian prince the honor of this first ascent of the loftiest of United States mountains, for success was secured by careful preparations, by judicious leading, and by great physical endurance. Mt. St. Elias does not seem to present difficulties of the first order as regards mere climbing. There is little or no rock work to be done; and though the glaciers, especially the ice-falls of the last one which the party traversed (the Newton glacier), are troublesome, requiring a great deal of care and making progress very slow, they would not appear to involve any exceptional risks. The last slope to the summit is comparatively easy. But many things beyond powers of nimble climbing and steadiness of head go to the making of a successful ascent, especially in a distant and little-known region. In this instance three serious difficulties confronted the explorers. One was the very low snow line. The limit of perpetual snow averages three thousand feet above sea level on this part of the coast (lat. 60° N.), so that the mountain being 18,000 feet in height, 15,000 vertical feet, a height equal to that of Mont Blanc, was snow or ice, whereas in the Swiss Alps, where the snow line averages 8,500 feet, one has seldom more than 7,000 feet of vertical height represented by the part of an ascent which lies over snow. The second difficulty, arising from the first, was the immense length of the way over snow and ice from the foot of the first glacier to the top of the mountain. It took the party thirty days, on nearly all of which they were marching, to reach the summit; and during all this time they had to camp upon snow or ice. Thirdly, there is the weather. Owing to the climatic conditions which prevail in this region, it rains on most days on the lower slopes, and snows on most days above an altitude of 4,500 feet. Mists constantly hang over the hills, damping the traveller's spirits as well as his limbs, and greatly increasing the risk of his losing the way.

The climber who starts from his comfortable inn on the Riffelberg at 3 A. M., reaches the summit of Monte Rosa by nine o'clock, and returns for afternoon tea at four o'clock, little realizes how much energy of will and what powers of physical endurance are needed by those who have to sleep every night for five or six weeks upon the snow, in a temperature always below, and often far below, freezing point, and walking during the day in clothes which are almost always wet.

It says a great deal for the skill with which equipments of all kinds had been selected that this Italian party kept their health the whole time, and seem to have suffered after their journey no disagreeable consequences. Fortunately, they had two advantages. The explorers of the great Andean peaks on the borders of Chili and Argentina suffered terribly from the incessant gales that raged around them, and from being obliged to remain for many weeks together at an elevation exceeding 12,000 feet above sea level. These things wore out their strength and prevented some of them from reaching the top of Aconcagua. But the skirts of Mt. St. Elias are, at least in July and August, seldom visited by tempests, and the Italian party had to spend only two nights, that immediately preceding and that immediately following the final climb, at a height exceeding 10,000 feet. It was only on that final climb, and not till they had mounted to a height of 15,000 feet, that they began to suffer from the rarefaction of the air. For the last 1,500 feet nearly all of the ten persons, including two out of the four guides, found progress extremely difficult, owing to want of breath, drowsiness, and (in some instances) headache. It is remarkable that these symptoms are now seldom experienced in the Swiss Alps, even at a height of 15,000 feet, and are constantly experienced by nearly everybody in Colorado at heights little exceeding 8,000. No traveller or physiologist has yet succeeded in explaining the cause of the singular differences between one mountain region and another in this respect.

The view from the summit of Mount St. Elias was very extensive, for the climbers had a brilliantly clear day. Its vastness, and the height of the mountain masses over which it ranged, gave it grandeur, but it was monotonous in the snowy desolation of the landscape. Forty miles distant a range was seen, whose highest point, named Mount Logan by Professor Russell, would, according to his measurements, be slightly higher than St. Elias itself—19,500 feet, against 18,100. And still further to the north, other peaks were descried in the far distance which may be as high as or even higher than Mount Logan. Thus it appears premature to assume that the United States possesses the loftiest piece of ground on the North American continent, for though St. Elias is now recognized as overtopping its Mexican rivals, Orizaba and Popocatepetl, its supremacy may be displaced by some one of these newly discovered summits within the British territory which lies behind Alaska. St. Elias itself appears to stand on the frontier.

The book is simply and pleasantly written, with no ostentation, and no attempts at rhetoric in the descriptive passages. It is a narrative of efforts most creditable to the courage and tenacity of the whole party, as

well as to the energy and skill of the Duke of the Abruzzi, who led them. It is enriched by maps, panoramic views, and a very large number of photogravures and smaller photographic illustrations, from which we receive an excellent notion of the scenery of the snow-fields and glaciers traversed. It has reports by eminent scientific authorities on the insects and minerals collected by the expedition, as well as appendices on mountain equipment and on meteorological observations. It renders a service to science by confirming the conclusion reached by Professor Russell, that there is no ground for the old notion that Mount St. Elias is a volcano, for the rocks are mostly schistose, and the highest peak appears to consist of diorite and amphibolite. But the question which the unscientific reader will, after all, care most to have answered, relates to the scenic aspects of the region and its availability for the votary of mountain-climbing. On this not much is expressly said in the book, yet it is not difficult for the reader to form his own conclusions. Climbing in Alaska is fit only for those who have plenty of time and money, for the distance is great, and it is necessary to hire a vessel for the latter part of the voyage, there being no regular service to Yakutat Bay. It is fit only for those who have exceptional strength and soundness of constitution, since the long continuous campings on the ice try the physical system severely. And as to the scenery, though it is in its way very grand, from the gigantic scale on which the mountains are built, it wants the variety of color and effect which pastures and woods give in the Alps and the Caucasus, and in the outer parts of the Himalayas. To beauty these things are essential. Moreover, although there are rock faces free of snow, there are not, so far as we can gather from this book, peaks or precipices of bare rock comparable in boldness and grandeur to those which Mont Blanc shows on the side of the Allée Blanche, or which Ushba, for instance, shows in the Svanetian valleys of the Central Caucasus. It is not to be expected, therefore, that these Alaskan mountains will greatly attract the lovers of the landscape picturesque, although adventurous climbers will find opportunities for winning fame still left to them in the yet unexplored and very lofty ranges which lie between Mount St. Elias and the basin of the Yukon River.

MACAULAY'S FATHER.

Life and Letters of Zachary Macaulay. By his Granddaughter, Viscountess Knutsford. London: Edward Arnold. 8vo, pp. 496. 1900.

Zachary Macaulay is known chiefly as the father of his son. His anti-slavery labors, which were surely worth remembering, are generally forgotten, and his name receives slight mention, or none, in books of reference. But the fame of F. D. Maurice, for instance, except with a small circle, was made by a posthumous biography, and something of the same kind may occur again. That hope is the occasion and excuse for a volume which to the uninterested will seem unduly large.

The MacAulays were an old Highland clan, supposed to be an offshoot of the MacGregors. Zachary's father and grandfather were ministers of the Kirk, but the two before them maintained their ancestral traditions

in many a raid and skirmish. Their descendant was a fighter through life, but with modern weapons of peace. He was a precocious boy, self-taught, with some help from a busy sire, and was the tutor of younger brothers and sisters. This, with the foolish applause of his elders, made him forward and bumptious. At fourteen he entered a counting-house in Glasgow, where his company was not good. Early in 1785, when not yet seventeen, he went to Jamaica and became bookkeeper on a sugar plantation. Here his surroundings were demoralizing and hardening; but he had the Bunyan-like habit of making great sins in the retrospect out of little. In 1789 he sailed for England and was received in Leicestershire by Thomas Babington, who had married his sister. This serious and superior person speedily became to Zachary more than a brother or a second father.

And now began a new era, or, as he justly esteemed it, his real life. The boorish and opinionated youth found himself in an atmosphere of refinement, of domestic affection, of financial ease, of earnest and (according to the ideas of that time) enlightened piety. High standards, a deep sense of responsibility, altruistic views, prevailed. His response to the new influences was quick and glad, for he had found himself. Babington was associated with Wilberforce, Thornton, and the few others who had devoted themselves to emancipation, and incidentally to the new settlement of Sierra Leone. Thither their convert was sent on an informal mission at the end of 1790; there he soon became a Councillor, and was Governor from 1794 to 1799. Nearly one-third of the memoir is filled with the pitiful story of these years, which included French attacks, invasions, pillages, burnings, plots, insurrections, and countless reverses, discouragements, and annoyances great and small, from without and from within. Through it all the colony—then a private enterprise—somehow lived and grew, thanks mainly to its Governor. The situation called for infinite patience, prudence, faith, zeal, and all the abundant qualities of Macaulay's rapidly maturing character. It was the day of small things, of dirt and meanness and embarrassment, of entanglements and blunders, of false friends and resolute foes, of well-nigh hopeless material to work upon and dubious tools to work with, of scanty support and incompetent or obstructive helpers. But these were the first feeble steps in a mighty conflict; in his labors and sufferings Macaulay was sustained (as the remote reader is not in the perusal) by the consciousness that they were endured in a good cause, which was soon visibly to become a great cause—none greater.

Returning to England in 1799, he married and became Secretary of the Sierra Leone Company; this post he held till its work was accomplished and the colony transferred to the Crown in 1808. It was a change of place, but no respite from toil. In Jamaica he had seen the workings of slavery; in Africa he had studied the slave trade, root and branch. He now became the prompter of his friends in and out of Parliament, the storehouse of ammunition for the war of humanity. During the sessions "he was always at hand, either in the gallery of the House of Commons or below the bar of the House of Lords, able to furnish facts or suggestions to the leaders of

his party, and ready to produce any Blue-book or state paper required for reference, or to point out some quotation apt to the subject" then in hand. His full and accurate knowledge, his retentive memory, his mastery of detail, his gift for analysis, his mental clearness and acuteness, made him indispensable. His labors might seem humble and obscure, but they were felt and acknowledged, then and long after, alike by friends and foes.

In 1808 he began a prosperous career as shipowner and merchant, with a house at Sierra Leone. But the triumph of 1807 did not mean repose for the victors; their work was not finished till the abolition of slavery in the British dominions in 1833. In view of this great end, his responsibilities became so arduous that, to devote himself entirely to the cause, he in 1823 abandoned the direction of his business, with most of its profits; to his nephew and partner, after taking precautions which seemed sufficient but proved futile. The result was financial ruin, and his later years, from 1826 to his death in 1858, were clouded by misfortune. His character was more than irreproachable; he had simply pursued a noble ideal throughout his adult life, and set the public interest above his own. As to the last years the material grows strangely scant. Had his memoir been written half a century ago by his children, the presentation of his private life and personal traits might have been more full, even, and vivid. But his granddaughter has inherited his cool, calm temper; she seems not unduly laudatory; the few shadows on the picture—his unedifying youth, his lack of a genial and winning manner, the slight and inevitable narrowness of his creed, his apparent imprudence in trusting his affairs to another, his decaying and sorrowful though undaunted age—are not concealed. Happy the life on whose great virtues and services there is so little discount!

The anti-slavery movement lay nearest Macaulay's heart, but merely as the first and most pressing of humanitarian reforms. He was deeply interested in missions in the East Indies, as well as in Africa. He edited (and to a good extent wrote) the *Christian Observer* from 1802 to 1816, chiefly because nobody else could be found to do it. His complaint to his friend Hannah More, in 1806, casts a side-light on the religious temper of the time: "On one side it is attacked as Calvinistic, while even our ally Scott stigmatizes it as Arminian. The Dissenters make a violent clamor against it as being High-Church, while the High-Church party abuse it as favorable to Methodists."

His paper, by the way, felt "a sensible satisfaction" that Pitt did not die a "philosophical death," with "a very deep regret that a regular attendance upon the duties of public worship" was not among the premier's virtues. Whether Macaulay penned or simply endorsed these sentiments, he had used the following knock-down argument in repelling an accusation that he was hostile to missionary efforts (he had had trouble with some cross-grained or incapable evangelists at Sierra Leone): "You will allow that there may be missions to which it would be proper to show no friendly disposition—for instance, a mission from the College of Jesuits or a mission of the disciples of Priestley." But these eccentricities belong rather to the period, or to its best peo-

ple, than to the man. He was of the Clapham set—his home was at Clapham from 1803 to 1818—but he was no fanatic. His goodness, like that of his friends, was clad in garments now obsolete. The character remains, though the clothes are out of fashion.

Sir George Stephen's statement, "Every friend to slavery well knew Macaulay to be his most dangerous foe," seems extravagant when one finds it on page 270; but as we read on, testimonies accumulate that the reactionaries hated this modest lieutenant as if he were general of the army of reform. In and out of the press, attacks, insults, calumnies, virulent libels, multiplied. After his death a newspaper wrapper was found among his papers, directed "To that Prince of Cruelty, if he can be found, Z. Macaulay, London." Wilberforce wrote him in 1832, "You have the hardest measure that ever man received for sacrificing his health, his spirits, his pecuniary interest, to a great public cause."

The man, taken inwardly and apart from his services, it is not quite easy to estimate. He was as far from picturesqueness as from pretentiousness; he makes no appeal to the imagination until the spiritual sense is touched by the note of moral beauty. One is tempted to say that he is not impressive; but the impressiveness is there in the end, after it has been sought. Now, as in life, he does not demand attention; he is no advertiser. The portrait which fronts the title may be passed with a hasty glance; but turn back to it, it holds you, for it discloses, by slow degrees, the man. The face, Quaker-like in its serenity and gentleness, with an "expression at once so earnest and so monotonous," suggests more than it reveals. Fourteen long and conscientious chapters leave us persuaded that their subject had every claim to respect, but no power to attract; yet almost on the last page this illumining passage is cited from "one who knew him well":

"That Zachary Macaulay's understanding was proof against sophistry, and his nerves against fear, were conclusions to which a stranger arrived at the first interview with him. But what might be the charm which excited among his chosen circle a faith approaching to superstition and a love rising to enthusiasm towards a man whose demeanor was so inanimate, if not austere? That much was passing within which that eloquent tongue and those taciturn features could not utter; and that he had won, without knowing how to court, the attachment of all who approached him closely—these were discoveries which the most casual acquaintance might make, but which they whom he honored with his intimacy, and they alone, could explain."

Unfortunately for the reader, Lady Knutsford was born too late to be of this favored circle; but we owe her a debt for reviving the memory of a benefactor, and making us acquainted with a pure and rare spirit. Her grandfather was

"of the plain heroic breed
Who loved Heaven's silence more than fame";

one of the quiet soldiers who win great battles, and take no part in the shouting and reporting; one who, as his tablet in Westminster Abbey says, "meekly endured the toil, the privation, and the reproach, resigning to others the praise and the reward"; a man of ideals and convictions, whose intense faith was shown by works, and not at all by words and theories. As if to make things even, his brilliant son was his

antithesis, possessing all the gifts the father so eminently lacked, and as little as might be of the paternal qualities; singularly destitute of religious sensibility, but made to restore the family fortunes, to catch and hold the public eye and ear, to fill the trump of fame, so that but one Macaulay should be remembered.

AN AMERICAN WOMAN IN SPAIN:

Spanish Highways and Byways. By Katherine Lee Bates. The Macmillan Co. MCM. Pp. xii, 448.

The only unfortunate things about this book are the illustrations and the title. However pretty the illustrations in themselves are—and over all the forty there is the trail of the camera and the process reproduction—they have no living connection with the letterpress to which they are joined. They are evidently the official and professional pictures which right-minded tourists buy on their decent progresses over the beaten routes, not such little personal sketches as should have gone with Miss Bates's kindly and individual pen-work. The title, too, would suggest that we had here a string of pleasant notes by a stroller, sauntering along through less frequented roads and taking snap-shots of Spain from the outside. The opposite, rather, is true, and the strength of this book lies in a rare insight into Spanish characteristics and life, and a power of rendering that insight in exact and telling words.

The responsibility for the illustrations and the title lies, it is to be hoped, with the publishers. At least, we will leave it there; for we have no desire to find any fault at all with Miss Bates. Her book is too delicious for that, too much of an oasis for the weary plodder through the travellers' tales of the day. Since Borrow hawked Bibles in Spain and Longfellow opened his "Tailor's Drawer," there has been little written about that country with the brightness and charm, the lightness of touch, and the feeling of absolute truth in impression and rendering, which we find here. Spain is not an easy country for the tourist. Sleeping-bags, insect-powder, a knack for foraging, and infinite patience are needed by all except those who ramp through the land under the flag of Cook. Further, it is really an Oriental country, and the Arabs and their ways have never been driven out. As is the Egyptian beggar, so is the Spanish; and the courtesy of the desert is that of Andalusia. Which means that he who would know beggars and courtesy, and all the rest, to their core, must have such a tact and such a vision as come only by very rare nature. And these for Americans in the last bitter days must be raised to the 27th power. Probably no American man could do it. That Miss Bates was able, though in fears often, and aided from time to time by being mistaken for an Englishwoman, is a tribute to herself and her opportunities. By some fortunate chance, she enjoyed an access to Spanish family and social life that falls to few birds of passage; and her knowledge of Spanish and her easy camaraderie carried her over the fence-ments that surround the railway traveller and sightseer, into converse with beggars and babies, nuns and pilgrims.

Passing from Mrs. Gulick's Girls' School, exiled to Biarritz through the war, she was introduced to one circle of friends at San

Sebastian, to another at Madrid, and yet another at Granada, where (in the terms of Spanish hospitality) she possessed several houses, and had the happiness of living for a month on the Alhambra hill in a villa kept by descendants of the Moors; to another at Seville through Holy Week—persistently called Passion Week, in the headlines—to another at Cadiz; and again swung back to Madrid, apparently for a lengthened stay in a *pension*, certainly the best means of coming to know a people that has yet been devised. With all this went a sleety, chilly day in Burgos, the city of the Cid; a too brief dream of Cordova and of the mosque, the rival of that in Damascus in which the faithful still worship; a Corpus Christi procession at Toledo, that dead, frozen town of mystery and art, but the town, too, of Lazarillo de Tormes, whose light-fingered scions still flourish; a wildly independent (for a lone female) journey down the "Silver Road" from Seville to Cadiz, the way that Columbus went and Cortes from the foot of the Golden Tower; and, finally, a pilgrimage through the Basque provinces to the oak of Guernica and St. James of Compostela, a shrine to which many have trudged, from the Wife of Bath to Sterne's Ass, and where the throngs of pilgrims and tourists still gather.

But such an itinerary gives little idea of the value and power of this book. Many a one could journey through it and come back with empty hands, or, worse, a notebook brimmed with the commonplace. Here there is fulness of the best. It is true that the chapters on the Alhambra could not fail to be overshadowed by Washington Irving. But a modern and gripped-struck Granada gives fresh scope, and dreams on the Generalife are broken now by the new Spain. The last sigh of the Moors becomes tears for the *repatriados*, and echoes of Arab poetry and the tales of magicians fade into the symbolic play of the young Granadine poet Angel Ganivet, dead at Riga in his prime, and the hopes which he had for his country. And so it is through all the book. Everywhere Miss Bates has known how to pass beyond towered cities and pageants to the people and the life working behind them and in them. Most striking of all is the way in which she brings out that the mediævalism of Spain is not yet crystallized and rigid, but is growing in its own way and producing its own peculiar phenomena. Thus, at Compostela on the feast of St. James, there can still be seen popular gambols like those of the mediæval Abbot of Unreason than anything else. Eight wickerwork giants parade the streets; lead the processions, and take part in the solemn cathedral service. This in itself is not, perhaps, so much, but the striking thing is that these are no mere survivals, but still add to their numbers. Two of them, "the leaders and prime favorites, are regular *Punch* caricatures of modern English tourists. John Bull is a stout old gentleman, with side-whiskers, a vast expanse of broadcloth back, and a single eyeglass secured by a lavender ribbon. The British Matron, in a smart Dolly Varden frock, glares with a shocked expression from under flaxen puffs and an ostrich-feathered hat." On the high day of the feast, the six subordinate boobies, Frankish and Moorish pilgrims of the Old World, fall discreetly into the background, and these two modern absurdities go up into the Holy of

Holles, and dance to the music of guitars and tambourines before the high altar. Evidently, the Church still knows how to hold the Spanish populace.

Again, genuine ballad poetry, sprung from the people and current on the lips of the people, is so extinct elsewhere that we distinguish it from modern imitations by calling it "traditional." That does not hold in Spain. Most charming of all Miss Bates's chapters is the one describing the choral games of children in the streets and squares. There the little girls dance and pipe songs untiringly, songs that they all know, though they do not know when or where or from whom they have learned them. Nor are they simply of old, unhappy, far-off things; life and growth is still in them, and they tell of the things of the day. There is a weird lament for the dead young Queen Mercedes, a song full of energy and life for the murdered Gen. Prim; and a snatch of genuine traditional melody glosses into romance the unsavory Isabella II. Another of these ballads must have originated since the leaning tower of Saragossa fell in 1892. Yet all is not so modern. The fate of Mambrú is sung still, and there are even echoes of the Moors. These and more are rendered with a happiness which recalls Longfellow's happy hand. There can be no question that Miss Bates has a rare gift in turning lyric verses, and we trust that she will use it further.

Other vital matters touched lightly but clearly, to which we can now only allude, are the education of girls and women in Spain and the sociological questions that spring from it—life in a middle-class *pen-sion* brings one very close to such problems; religion in Spain, friars and nuns, the devout and the frivolous, with lay-folk, pious, equivocal, and indifferent; the social status of Protestants, and the work which their missions can do—some very sane remarks; the democracy of Spain, with its peasant saints and the rich, soil-sprung, truth-seeing, and truth-telling realism of Velázquez and Cervantes; the charm and grace of Spanish women; gypsies; bulls; politics; above all, the jostling, shrieking contradictions and paradoxes, which make the Spanish race a permanent mystery to all but students of the East. It is a charming and sympathetic portrayal of that mystery which we have in the present book, and it can be safely commended.

The German Sectarians of Pennsylvania: A Critical and Legendary History of the Ephrata Cloister and the Dunkers. Vol. II., 1742-1800. By Julius Friedrich Sachse. Philadelphia: Printed for the Author. 1900.

As only 350 copies of this work have been printed for sale, it is clear that the number of persons interested in Ephrata and Ephratana is small. A certain feeling of regret will be experienced by some of these after perusing this exhaustive work—a feeling based on the conviction that there are now few additional facts to be discovered regarding the Ephrata Cloister and its inmates. It was only about thirty years ago that Ephrata and its books became known to students of colonial history, and interest was continually awakened by the discovery of new facts. Manuscripts or music books, type dug up in the fields around the old buildings, a hitherto unknown broadside or pamphlet from the brethren's press, and even old deeds or letters relating to the cloister inmates, have

been brought forth from time to time as valuable finds. Of all the workers in this field, the present author has been the most indefatigable, and his collection of Ephrata curiosities probably stands unrivalled. In the garrets of many a farm-house in eastern Pennsylvania had lain for fully a century old letters, manuscripts, account-books, specimens of needlework and ornamental penmanship, and even official diaries of the cloistered community, until recently brought to light by Mr. Sachse. Legends of families that had ancestors connected with the cloister, facts gleaned from letters in European libraries, and the results of the study of the Ephrata literature itself, are here presented and critically analyzed. The volume contains 535 pages with 28 plates, 80 facsimiles of manuscripts and title-pages, and 135 other illustrations. Together with volume i., already noticed by us, it constitutes an historical investigation such as has rarely been attempted in this country.

The German Bible printed by Christopher Sauer at Germantown in 1743 is discussed in the first chapter, and many new facts are brought out regarding its history. As some sheets have been found bearing the water-marks of the Ephrata brotherhood, it is proved that some of the paper was made at Ephrata's mill. The binding of the greater part of the edition was also done there, as appears from notices and advertisements in Sauer's newspaper. The author indeed regards it as probable that the Appendix was printed at Ephrata, as this is in a different type from the rest of the book. Tradition, moreover, informs him that much of the type-setting and proof-reading at Germantown was done by members of Beissel's mystic brotherhood.

Printing probably began at Ephrata in 1744, but the earliest known imprint bears the date of 1745. This was 'Die Ernsthafte Christen-Pflicht,' a devotional book which has since been issued in many editions in Pennsylvania. It and several others were printed by the brotherhood for the Mennonites, the one best known being the great 'Martyr Book' of 1748, a folio of 1,468 pages, the largest American publication of the colonial period. Altogether about sixty books and pamphlets were printed at Ephrata, and facsimiles of the title-pages of the most important ones are given by the author with interesting historical and critical notes. Of several of the broadsides and smaller pamphlets only a single copy is known to exist, and the information afforded regarding them will be very welcome to collectors of Ephratana. Of most of the bound books, however, numerous copies have been preserved, and can still be found in the Mennonite and Dunker communities of eastern Pennsylvania.

The Ephrata cloister was famous for its vocal music, and numerous manuscripts of the notes have been found; to these the author devotes an interesting chapter, giving not only facsimiles of the originals, but the same translated into modern musical notation. The rules and discipline of the sisterhood, the mystical incantations practised in order to protect the buildings against fire, the visit of Israel Acrelius to Ephrata, the life of Conrad Weiser, the pilgrimage of Beissel to the Rogerines of Connecticut, and the Dunker settlements in the Antietam and Shenandoah valleys, are treated in different chapters. That Ludwig Höcker, the

schoolmaster of the community, gave regular religious instruction to children on Sabbaths and Sundays, is clearly proved by a letter written by one who attended that class, and also by printed reward cards which have been found. This Sunday-school was discontinued in 1777, seven years before the time when Raikes first taught children on Sunday. The secular school of Höcker enjoyed a wider popularity, but the exercises which the author calls "higher mathematics" will be found on analysis to be nothing more than the extraction of square and cube roots of numbers.

Conrad Beissel, the mystic theosophist of Ephrata, was the spiritual and temporal head of the cloister. He was a man of small stature, well proportioned, of nervous temperament, and possessed of a magnetic personality. His first theosophic ideas, particularly those of celibacy, were derived from the writings of Gottfried Arnold, a Lutheran mystic of the seventeenth century. True Christianity could be secured only by overcoming the bonds of the flesh; true wisdom could be attained only by becoming united with the celestial Sophia. Man was originally created as a perfect being, combining both the male and female elements; through the fall of Adam, these were separated until they later became united in the body of Christ. To become regenerated and secure perfect happiness in the next world, purity of life and renunciation of self were necessary; also, by right living, by renouncing human love and marriage, by inward reflection, and by outward praise of God, one might hope, through Christ, to attain to a mental condition in which the celestial male and female elements were united—a condition of absorption closely akin in Beissel's mind, as Seidensticker has shown, to that of Nirvana. The brethren looked forward to union with the spiritual bride, and the sisters to union with the heavenly bridegroom. This is the constant theme of the hymns, sermons, confessions, and proverbs that were issued from the Ephrata cloister.

To the details of this mystic philosophy Mr. Sachse does not devote sufficient space. The theosophical proverbs contained in the 'Theosophische Lectionen' of 1745 are, for instance, splendid examples for the illustration of the bearing of Beissel's religious principles upon ethics. Indeed, the whole system is one that must claim a certain admiration, and in the hands of a broader-minded man it might have become a power in the Christian world. But the cloister life at Ephrata was upheld only by Beissel's personality, and the principle of celibacy was fatal to its success. That Beissel had a "vast influence," as the author claims, must be respectfully denied, unless it be among his few devoted adherents, who probably never at any one time numbered over one hundred. Upon his death in 1786 the cloister rapidly declined, and his successor, the learned Peter Miller, who translated the Declaration of Independence into seven languages, had not the religious fervor necessary to keep up its peculiar customs. The cloister gained no new converts, and at the end of the eighteenth century only a few aged monks and nuns were left to tell the story of its prosperous days.

It is with regret that the note must be made that the art of binding is not so well understood by the publisher of this book as it was by the brethren of the Ephrata

press. The first volume is bound in green, while the second is in an unpleasant red, and its sheets become easily loosened from the backing in a single reading. The typography is good, as also are most of the cuts, but the writer or proof-reader has occasionally been at fault. On page 473 the honored name of J. Max Hark, the translator of the 'Chronicon Ephratense,' is metamorphosed into J. Mark Hart. The bibliography of the Ephrata works should properly have mentioned the number of pages in each book. These inadvertencies are doubtless due to haste, and may be cheerfully overlooked in view of the great amount of research done by the author, and the interesting manner in which he has presented the history of this unique American cloister.

The Human Ear: Its Identification and Physiology. By Miriam Anne Ellis. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1900. Small 8vo, pp. x, 225, illustrated.

To some extent the shapes of the human ears are useful for purposes of identification; they differ in individuals, and they are rarely, if ever, alike on the two sides of the same head. That the character of the owner is indicated by his ears is not proven, and that there is an intimate connection between the mind of a person and the shapes of his ears is improbable. The present is not a scientific book; it is to be placed with popular attempts such as phrenology, physiognomy, palmistry, etc., with claims beyond what they can substantiate, but with perhaps a small amount of science in their foundations. The text is largely made up of prattle about ears, some of it much resembling that of a fortune-teller. That the ear will show which is the quality with the strongest staying power, so that it may be relied on to help the other powers to keep the whole up to the mark without any exceptional talent; that the narrow ear seldom adapts itself to anything; that wherever a little knot occurs in the helix, that division possesses a power of specializing; that where the helix is shaped like a round roll instead of a folded-over rim, the owner instinctively aims at using and discussing laws of all sorts, whether abstract or concrete; that deal with large masses of people, or of ideas; that when the top of the left ear and the bottom of the right ear are in no way remarkable, the owner is not likely to be a notability in art, science, or literature; that each ear announces the way in which half of an undertaking will be carried out, the right ear the first half, in right-handed persons; and that although the ear indicates qualities waiting to be developed, we cannot tell which of them will be unfolded in the future, are statements which sufficiently expose the author's drift. It is said of Charles Dickens's left ear that it was nicked where division 3 should be, and the part is pushed outwards with a square form, showing an abundant flow of words; but it is not stated whether the shape of the ear or the flow of words was the determining factor.

Lavater receives a good deal of attention; other early authors are looked up without marked success. In the short notice of Albertus Magnus there is no mention of publication of what he wrote, or how he concerned himself with the ear. Porta, called Della Porta, has several pages; it is said that "his treatise on the Physiognomy of Man in six

books, was printed in Venice in 1644, in an Italian translation. The second book refers to ears." This makes it appear as if only the translation was published, and that it was in six books, of which the second was devoted to ears. In 'De humana physiognomonia Ioannis Baptistae Portae Neapolitani Libri iii., MDXCIII, Hanoviae,' only the eighth of the fifty-five chapters in the second book of the four books treats of ears. Those who are fond of discussing relations, usually more or less coincidental or supposititious, between the abilities and accomplishments of a person and his external features, will find much to interest them in Miss Ellis's book.

The Woodpeckers. By Fannie Hardy Eckstorm. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This little volume is a most welcome addition to the long list of popular bird books, and one quite out of the ordinary in its contents and method of treatment, being confined to a single family of North American birds, and having principally in view the intimate relation of structure to habits. The many peculiarities of this group of birds, in respect both to their ways of getting a living and special modifications of structure to this end, render them of exceptional interest. Mrs. Eckstorm shows commendable familiarity with her subject, her chapters being evidently based on original observation, as regards not only the habits of our American woodpeckers, but the modifications of bill, feet, tongue, and tail that so eminently adapt them to their peculiar rôle in Nature's economy. In her detailed accounts of the habits of particular species, she is not unmindful of their important economic relations to man, and carefully discriminates between the bad traits of a few and the general beneficent habits of the group as a whole. That she has a good grasp of the philosophy of her subject, and an easy way of imparting it to others, is evident in her chapter on "How Each Woodpecker is Fitted for his Own Kind of Life." After reviewing the points of structure in which woodpeckers differ from each other, and the correlated differences in habits, she presents the following summary and comment, which exhibit fairly the character and spirit of the book:

"As we try to group these particulars under general heads, we see that we have observed three things: That the structure of a bird is adapted to its kind of life; that the structure varies by small degrees with the kind of life; that the kind of life is conditioned largely upon the kind of food and upon the method of procuring it, more particularly the latter.

"These are not so much different truths as three aspects of one truth. When we study the first, we see why birds are grouped together into orders and families; we study their resemblances. When we observe the second, we see why they are divided into species, for we note their differences. But when we consider the third, and reflect that birds have the power to choose new kinds of food or new places and means of getting it, we see how it is that there can come to be new kinds of birds, new sub-species and species, springing up from time to time. Wonderful and improbable as it seems, there is more reason to believe than there is to doubt that new kinds of animals and plants are constantly in process of making; that the laws of change are constantly at work adapting creatures to their surroundings, or crushing them out of existence because they will not learn new ways."

'The Woodpeckers' is well calculated to

inspire interest in nature study. An appendix contains a "Key to the Woodpeckers of North America," followed by "Descriptions of the Woodpeckers of North America," whereby each species can be readily identified. The five colored plates are by the well-known bird artist, Louis Agassiz Fuertes, and the cuts in the text, illustrating structural parts, by J. L. Ridgway.

Shakespeare in Music. By Louis C. Elson. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

In the Boston Public Library there are more than 3,250 different works relating to Shakspeare. He has been discussed from nearly every possible point of view, both wisely and foolishly. Concerning his relations to music much has been written, but Mr. Elson has capped the climax with his monograph of 354 pages on this subject. It seems a goodly number of pages, yet, after perusing the book, one is agreeably surprised to find that there are not too many, and that the author has succeeded in making every chapter entertaining. Mr. Elson's long experience as a lecturer came to his aid here. Though fond of antiquarian research, he never allows it to degenerate into pedantry, and always bears his reader in mind.

There is so much of music in Shakspeare's writings that Dr. Johnson thought it necessary to apologize for the poet's love of that art; which leads Mr. Elson to remark that Johnson, "most unmusical of commentators," ought never to have edited Shakspeare. There are certainly many passages in the text which must remain unintelligible to one ignorant of music. Mr. Elson has endeavored to throw light on all the dark points, and the literary commentators will have to consult him hereafter. They will be interested, among other things, in his suggestion that the word "dumpe" may have been derived from the Bohemian "dumka," the melancholy dance of which Dvorák is so fond.

Among the topics discussed are the musical instruments referred to by Shakspeare, such as the consorts, fifes, viols, recorders, virginals, lutes, bagpipes (for which, we are glad to see, the author has a good word); the status of musicians, and the musical life of England in Shakspeare's time; the dances of the period; drinking-songs, table music, ballads, mad songs; settings of the lyrics, and the use made of the dramas by opera composers and symphonists, etc. There are abundant illustrations in musical type, both mediæval and modern, and the poet's text is quoted freely. Mr. Elson concludes that Shakspeare knew some of the technicalities of music and that he was himself a singer, his vocal allusions being more detailed and exhibiting a surer hand than those connected with instrumental music. He also brings forward a musical argument against the Baconians.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Arnold, Edwin. *Death — and Afterwards.* New Amsterdam Book Co. 75 cents.
 Aulard, A. *Histoire Politique de la Révolution Française.* Paris: Armand Colin. 12 fr.
 Austin, J. O. Philip and Philippa. Providence: Published by the Author.
 Baildon, H. E. Robert Louis Stevenson. A. Wesels Co. \$1.75.
 Barry, William. *The Wizard's Knot.* Century Co. \$1.50.
 Bates, Morgan. *Martin Brook.* Harpers. \$1.50.
 Bernard, V. F. *L'Art d'intéresser en Classe.* William R. Jenkins. 50 cents.
 Besant, Walter. *East London.* Century Co. \$3.50.
 Borrow, George. *Wild Wales: Its People, Language, and Scenery.* G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Botsford, G. W. *A History of Rome for High Schools and Academies.* Macmillan. \$1.10.

Bowdoin, W. G. The Rise of the Book-Plate. A. Wessels Co. \$2.
 Brady, Cyrus Townsend. Under Tops'ls and Tents. Scribners.
 Brady, Cyrus Townsend. When Blades are out and Love's Afeld. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.50.
 Braunholtz, E. G. W. Books of Reference for Students and Teachers of French: A Critical Survey. London: Th. Wollheben. 2s.
 Brooks, Hildegard. Without a Warrant. Scribners. \$1.50.
 Brown, Alexander. English Politics in Early Virginia History. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.
 Bullen, F. T. A Sack of Shakings. McClure, Phillips & Co. \$1.50.
 Burke, Edmund. Speech on Conciliation with America. Henry Holt & Co. 50 cents.
 Caldecott, Prof. A. The Philosophy of Religion in England and America. Macmillan.
 Cassell's National Library: (1) Peter Schlemihl and The Story without End; (2) Cicero's "Old Age and Friendship." Cassell & Co. 10 cents each.
 Challice, Rachel. The Fourth Estate. Brentano's. \$1.50.
 Chapman, Allen. Bound to Rise. The Mershon Co. Courtney, Leonard. The Working Constitution of the United Kingdom. Macmillan. \$2.
 Crockett, S. R. The Silver Skull. Frederick A. Stokes Co. \$1.50.
 Cross, R. J. Selections from Dante's Divina Commedia. Henry Holt & Co.
 Custer, E. B. The Boy General: Story of the Life of Major-General George A. Custer. Scribners. 60 cents.
 Daniels, Gertrude P. The Warners: An American Story of To-day. Chicago: Jamieson-Higgins Co.
 Dawson, W. H. German Life in Town and Country. (Our European Neighbors.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.20.
 Donald, Robert. The Municipal Year Book of the United Kingdom for 1901. London: Edward Lloyd.
 Dreyfuss, Adolphe. Constructive Process for Learning German. William R. Jenkins. \$1.25.
 Drinkwater, H. First Aid to the Injured and Ambulance Drill. (Temple Primers.) Macmillan. 40 cents.
 Drysdale, William. The Young Consul. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.
 Edwards, Osman. Japanese Plays and Playfellows. London: William Heinemann; New York: John Lane.
 Emerson, Ralph Waldo. Essays. 2 vols. (Temple Classics.) Macmillan. 50 cents each.
 Ensley, Enoch. The Tax Question. Printed for the New York Tax Reform Association.
 Erasmus in Praise of Folly. Peter Eckler.
 Facsimile of the Unpublished British Head Quarters Colored Manuscript Map of New York and Environs (1782). Reproduced from the Original Drawing in the War Office, London. London: B. F. Stevens & Brown.
 Fitzmaurice, Lord Edmond. Charles William Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.50.
 Fontanges, Haryett. Les Femmes Docteurs en Médecine. Paris: Alliance Coopérative du Livre. 3 fr. 50c.
 Foster, C. H. The Common-Sense Philosophy of Spirit or Psychology. San Francisco: Published by the Author.

Fox, H. P. Thucydides; Histories, Book III. Henry Frowde. 90 cents.
 Franke, Hermann. Christentum und Darwinismus in ihrer Versöhnung. Alexander Duncker. \$1.
 Fuller, F. W. Egypt and the Hinterland. Longmans, Green & Co. \$3.50.
 Gallon, Tom. The Second Dandy Chater. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.60.
 Haggard, H. Rider. Lysbeth: A Tale of the Dutch. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.50.
 Hamilton, S. A. The Vengeance of the Mob. Abbey Press. \$1.
 Hammond, C. L. About the Bible: Being a Collection of Extracts from Writings of Eminent Biblical Scholars and Scientists. Cooke & Fry. \$1.25.
 Hapgood, Norman. The Stage in America, 1897-1900. Macmillan. \$1.75.
 Henty, D. T. Malcolm, the Waterboy. The Mershon Co.
 Holdich, T. H. The Indian Borderland, 1880-1900. London: Methuen & Co. 15 shillings.
 Horton, George. Like Another Helen. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
 Huell, Estelle M. Greek Sculpture. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
 Jerome, Jerome K. The Observations of Henry. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.
 Johnston, Elizabeth L. Recollections of a Georgia Loyalist. M. F. Mansfield & Co. \$1.50.
 Kaufmann, M. Social Development under Christian Influence. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
 Lagerlöf, Selma. From a Swedish Homestead. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Lavisse, Ernest, et Rambaud, Alfred. Le Monde Contemporain. Tome XII. (Histoire Générale, du Vème Siècle à nos Jours). Paris: Armand Colin.
 Lounsbury, G. C. An Idyllic Idyll, and Other Poems. John Lane.
 Mack, Anna E. For His Sake: Thoughts for Easter Day and Every Day. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.
 Marindin, G. E. Our Naval Heroes. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$5.
 Martin, Charlotte M. The Stage Reminiscences of Mrs. Gilbert. Scribners. \$1.50.
 Mason, R. O. Hypnotism and Suggestion in Therapeutics, Education, and Reform. Henry Holt & Co.
 McCarthy, Justin, and J. H. A History of the Four Georges and of William IV. Harpers. \$1.25.
 McCurdy, J. F. History, Prophecy and the Monuments, or Israel and the Nations, Vol. III. Macmillan. \$3.
 McCutcheon, G. R. Graustark: The Story of a Love behind a Throne. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. \$1.50.
 Meyer, Annie N. Robert Anns: Poor Priest. Macmillan. \$1.50.
 Morrish, Herbert. The Literary Year-Book and Bookman's Directory, 1901. Francis P. Harper. \$1.25.
 Muzzy, Alice M. Three Fair Philanthropists. Abbey Press.
 Noel, Conrad. The Day of the Sun. London: David Nutt. Is.
 Nuttall, Zella. The Fundamental Principles of Old and New World Civilizations. Cambridge (Mass.): Peabody Museum.
 Otis, James. With Porter in the Essex. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. \$1.50.

Pain, Barry. Another Englishwoman's Love-Letters. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Palmer, Frederick. The Ways of the Service. Scribners. \$1.50.
 Payne, Will. The Story of Eva. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
 Phelps, C. E. Falstaff and Equity: An Interpretation. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
 Phipson, T. L. Researches on the Past and Present History of the Earth's Atmosphere. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 Pope, Alexander. Selections from his Poetry. Henry Holt & Co. 70 cents.
 Post, M. D. Dwellers in the Hills. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Pottier, E. Vases Antiques du Louvre. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
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